

The Social Studies

Continuing

THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK

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The Social Studies

Volume XXXIII, Number 1

Continuing The Historical Outlook

January, 1942

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Contents

Lessons of History	Eugene T. Ferraro	3
The Conservation Motif in the Social Studies	George T. Renner	5
Revised Historical Viewpoints	Ralph B. Guinness	9
Hints From the History Program in England	R. T. Solis-Cohen	10
The Electoral College in Statu Quo	Henry Reiff	11
Geographic Games and Tests	W. O. Blanchard	13
Pictures as Aids to Learning in the Social Studies	R. W. Cordier	18
The Preservation and Use of Clippings	Alletha Standish	20
Illustrated Section	Daniel C. Knowlton	23
A Neglected Objective in the Teaching of History	W. B. Faherty	27
Economics: A Teaching Aid to History	James J. Flynn	29
Visual and Other Aids	Robert E. Jewett	30
News and Comment	Morris Wolf	32
Book Reviews and Book Notes	Richard Heindel	37
Current Publications Received		46

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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

VOLUME XXXIII, NUMBER 1

JANUARY, 1942

Lessons of History

EUGENE T. FERRARO

Passaic Valley High School, Little Falls, New Jersey

In these days, all of us are concerned with the currents and storms of world affairs. Each day we are met with shocks greater and more serious than the last. These have found America, as always, responsive to the distressing needs of unfortunate peoples. We are not apathetic to the cries of suffering humanity. Our country has been and remains the symbol of hope. In the midst of such turbulent conditions we are made to check our bearings.

We, who are connected with the schools, have our own serious task to face—one which weighs more heavily upon us as each event succeeds the other. Our interest is in the backgrounds, not merely in headlines. Each headline awakens a greater awareness of the real seriousness of the occasion. We should seek to discern and clarify meanings and consequent influences.

We, of today, are the material of which history is made and we have been granted its experiences to use to the best of our ability and comprehension. The important thing in this statement is the idea that we have been granted experiences. We can use or abuse them. But pay the price, we must. The experiences of history are but yardsticks to measure our endeavors and aids in directing our efforts. The cynic would say the only thing man learns from history is that he learns nothing from it. Such a position is tantamount to scorn for man's efforts. I am not willing to concede such. I would rather say that history is a summary of man's efforts, aspirations and desires—failures are the indications of man's short-

comings, his need for further experience and education.

It is in terms of a few of these experiences and the interpretation of them that I would like to guide our attention. The turmoil of the world makes such an orientation imperative and it devolves particularly upon the school to urge such a course. We are certainly living in an age of slogans and phrases—slogans and phrases which are glibly thrown about and bear as many meanings as the persons who employ them. This phenomenon is but a characteristic of our times. Let us turn to history and observe.

American history is replete with experiences which can offer us a means of squaring ourselves with the current realities. Let us look at this record not with the idea of seeking strictly analogous situations or tried patterns to adopt, but rather with the thought of exploring techniques, methods and particular approaches which may be helpful. We should be constantly aware of the fact that the things we seek were forged and conditioned by particular sets of factors and were effective in a particular climate of ideas. They were beneficial to the extent that they synchronized with events and harmonized with needs. History does not and cannot afford formulae applicable to specific occasions.

We have heard, read and discussed at great length pages of American history—the merits of national heroes, heroes of words and deeds. Each repetition may have brought a slightly new form, but we think: "The same old thing in a different dress." Most of

us may find that there is a deeper and more significant meaning for all of us, which comes when we reflect upon events and personalities in terms of our own experiences and the series of events which are transpiring. Our times afford such a view.

Essentially we can really understand only to the extent that we can feel. In our times, all society has most assuredly been made to feel and to react to a host of challenging changes. In such an atmosphere we should better appreciate and more readily understand the significance of particular personalities and circumstances.

America is really in a unique position. On the record there is no Peter the Great, Frederick the Great, Napoleon, Bismarck or a host of others who serve as key points of direction for some countries. We have our guidance in other forms. Lincoln is one of our symbols. His life included every step in the social ladder. His is a symbol of democratic technique and achievement. His historic position in the current world is revealed by way of contrast. There were no grandiose plans in his mind. His was the task of bringing into view the desires and hopes of the common man—to mold the world closer to the ideals of Christianity.

Carl Sandburg has shown us the true Lincoln. He has achieved this by recreating the social context in which Lincoln lived. We are brought face to face with the zest of Lincoln's *Prairie Years* and the stark realities of the *War Years*. We see our symbol patiently treating of all the details of a distraught world—slow to reach conclusions; but once attained, they were immovable. There was not in all America a man more inflexible once he had attained a particular position. Men of his time tried to urge him to instant action. Seward and the group he led looked upon him as a colossal failure, an inefficient, uncouth prairie pioneer. Horace Greeley, editor of the *Tribune*, called for immediate action and stirred the people to demand it. America was in a fury. There was none more sensitive to its torments than Lincoln. But he was not to be swayed into any course. He listened, sought council, mediated and then acted—and there was always action.

Democracy's art found its release in Lincoln. Lincoln was distinctly of the masses; but he represented their sober second thought, their higher possibilities. He wrote: "I claim not to have controlled events but confess plainly that events have controlled me." It is in this humbleness of approach that we can find the essence of his character—the lesson his record affords us.

He did not seek to control events. The technique was to understand them thoroughly and then act accordingly. This procedure he adhered to. Each event beckoned further consideration and study. All activity was urged by the course of events.

If we are to be true to the real Lincoln, we too must seek to find the nature of controlling events and to guide ourselves accordingly. We cannot dodge issues. They whirl us around and will command us if we do not understand the inherent forces. Our efforts are limited and conditioned by frames which society sets—frames which we ourselves have aided in creating.

If we had adequate space, we could pursue the course of Washington's, Jefferson's and Jackson's records and likewise see that they, too, did not control events, but were controlled by events. Washington, Jefferson, Lincoln—all appear to us as introductions to and summaries of dynamic factors which were seeking articulation. They gave voice to the swelling aspirations of their times. They tempered the excesses and directed the strengths of their age. Need we be reminded of Washington's trials, Jefferson's struggles and Jackson's upheavals? All are curtain calls to scenes of men in the forefront of the events of their times.

Here we may well pause to emphasize and reiterate that to say that the greatness of America—the democracy it represents—lies in her past and not her future is to diminish Washington, Jefferson and Lincoln, whose great service was that they released America's energies, raised them to a higher power by opening new channels for fruitful endeavors. They helped to make it possible for America to grow. The ages that followed were to be more abundant and hopeful than those in which they lived. To teach that the past is greater than the future is to paralyze all endeavor, to pour cold water on the fires of youth, to beget pessimism and an enervating attitude. To do so is to resort to ancestor worship in its deadliest form.

Democracy had its mirror of reflection in Jefferson and its embodiment in Lincoln. We see in these men democracy in concrete. Their experiences, the methods they employed, the trials they suffered are the records of democracy. We need, today, to look to the past in order to realize the nature and character of democracy.

When we do so, we find that democracy can only assert itself and find its due expression in terms of the efforts which are exerted to maintain and guide it. There is no automatic democracy. This position is testified to by our historical records and emphasized by the Educational Policies Commission, which states:

Rights to life, liberty, property and the pursuits of happiness are shadows, unless those who claim the rights are competent and have the moral power necessary to the creation and maintenance of the social arrangements in which rights may be realized.

The record shows that democracy has always been

proportioned to man. It offers man opportunities but *only* opportunities. Man's efforts are needed to give forms to opportunities. Democracy of itself cannot under any condition deliver patterns of perfection. It can but provide the climate which stimulates, the atmosphere which excites man to a more adequate self-realization.

The events of our day well illustrate this concept. In bold view, by way of contrast, we have presented on the one hand a system of government which says to man: "I offer you security, order, and freedom from thought. You have but to surrender your rights and privileges as an individual. Everything within the state, nothing outside it, nothing against it." We, in America, each day, are made more aware of the fact that such a concept can adequately be summarized by one word, and that word is "slavery."

On the other hand there is the system of government which says to man: "I offer you the prospects of a world to be made more abundant by the individual and cooperative efforts of man. We can only proceed in terms of the degree of energy and intelligence exerted by everyone." This is an offer of a series of challenges—to test and try us—no blueprints, no short cuts.

I am talking about totalitarianism and democracy. Totalitarianism—bold, assertive, flinging itself into the face of destiny, aware that it is being tested, acknowledging the gravity of the situation and the influence upon the next thousand years. This is no blind and unconsidered mechanism. It has chosen its goal and steps out to achieve it in brutal and bestial defiance of all that Christianity and its political form, democracy, proclaim.

And now we see that the very thing which the democracies failed to treat of, forces them into retreat, into counsels and areas of action. It is too late to decry the day. There is not time to quibble as to why; there is but to do. As each event has unfolded, we have heard the constant theme—*too late*. But action—swift and sure—is forthcoming.

"Make the world safe for democracy." This statement has been kicked about, laughed at and cynically

scorned. Those who are sophisticated among us will say, "Safe for what?" But can we take this slogan so lightly in the force of current realities? Across our shores there is no question of what awaits those who have been subjected to the wrath of the total war machine. There has been no equivocation in words or deeds. "Make the world safe for democracy" is the current clarion call to all who have faith in democracy, in humanity, to all who realize that we must pay a price for our rights and must pay for insurance. No one can forecast what may happen to the last detail. But if our historic leadership has any lesson to grant, it is in terms of the experience that events have controlled man.

Our first line of defense is a keen awareness of the nature of the events which are controlling man today. This awareness, which must be felt by all of us, must be linked with the appropriate action which our leadership can afford. Our first line of defense is in offering not merely sympathy but support to those who are checking with limb and blood the brutal force which has unleashed itself.

Our first line of defense is in the constant recognition that rights and security are something not only to be appreciated, but to be earned and revitalized by each generation.

It will be too late if we do not awaken to the realization of the dangers which are confronting us. Let us not entrust ourselves within a Chinese Wall of complacency. The future we face is a grim one, one demanding fortitude, energy and the will to preserve all that history has granted us. We face it with courage and assurance.

America has in its records the lessons to follow. May we read the records correctly. Lincolnian simplicity may certainly offer us guidance today. Lincoln's definition of democracy as government of the people, by the people and for the people should be totally understood. We cannot piece it. The sum is still the total of its parts. There cannot be democracy—a government for the people, which is not by, and of the people.

The Conservation Motif in the Social Studies

GEORGE T. RENNER

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In the present national defense program, we are hurriedly and wastefully exploiting huge amounts of basic natural resources. Most of the products of these

resources will ultimately be destroyed or lost, rather than become permanent capital for the nation. Regrettable though this be, it is rendered necessary by

the present world situation. Most of the American people are aware of the enormous waste involved in the present program, but they have deliberately chosen it because it represents much the lesser of two evils.

What is generally not appreciated, however, is that our normal or peace-time program and methods of using natural resources are also exorbitantly wasteful, destructive, and socially unplanned. Indeed our established pattern of resource use in the United States is so faulty that it guarantees a gradual but inevitable decrease in national welfare and standard of living. The fact that the American people generally are unaware of this, shows clearly that they are trying to get along in a technological age, equipped only with rustic and pastoral ideas. Beyond peradventure of argument, our educational practices have been such as to equip our citizens with inadequate and outmoded ideas and ways of thinking.

The task of developing an adequate understanding of the relation between permanent national welfare and the intelligent use of national resources is one which falls squarely into the lap of the teachers of social science. This is not simply a pleasant generalization; it is a fact which directly challenges our whole educational system. The need for conservation has been appreciated by scientists for seventy-five years; it has been a national issue for thirty-three years; and it has constituted a national crisis for nearly thirteen years. And yet educators have generally done nothing about it.

In 1910, Charles R. Van Hise wrote:

Conservation . . . it seems to me is more important than all other movements now before the people. There is before us a profound and wide campaign of education which must start at the universities, in national and state organizations, and must extend from them through the secondary and primary schools to the whole people. . . . It is a campaign of education which will extend through generations.

In 1930, John Hays Hammond declared that "no problem confronting the nation today presses harder for readjustment than the conservation of natural resources." In 1940, the National Education Association, in enumerating the outstanding problems facing American education, placed the need for conservation education second on the list. A few months later the Educational Policies Commission declared:

Realization of the basic importance of these resources, determination to use them for the common good through long-range planning, and general knowledge of appropriate remedial and preventive conservation procedures are among the marks of an educated citizen. Since future welfare and safety depends upon those

things, the schools may well assume considerable responsibility for checking the ravages upon the heritage of the nation made by ignorance, indifference, carelessness, and unbridled selfishness.

The implications of this are so great that, if they were generally appreciated they would speedily revolutionize our whole educational structure. In the first place, it would enhance the importance of the social sciences to an extent far exceeding anything now in existence or even contemplated for the future. Such an enhanced position would, however, require a veritable housecleaning within the social studies, and necessitate entirely new subject matter, points of view, and methods of investigation.

THE SOCIAL STUDIES AND THEIR ROLE

All of the subjects taught in the modern American school—the arts, the sciences, literature, the tool subjects, and the social studies—have a share in the primary task of adjusting the pupil to the society in which he lives. It is upon the social studies, however, that the major task of interpreting and analyzing that society, devolves. What is taught in these subjects, and the purposes for which they are taught, therefore, are of the highest importance.

In the elementary school, three of the seven social studies are almost universally taught—history, geography, and civics. In the secondary school two additional ones are frequently present—economics and sociology. The last two—anthropology and social psychology appear only at the college level. Those which are universally present in the elementary school are so significant that we may well examine them, at least very briefly, both as to general content and intent.

HISTORY

The usual practice is to teach American history as the story of man's triumphal march westward across the continent—the conquest of inventive man over nature. Actually, it is fundamentally nothing of the sort. Rather, it is a long heartbreaking series of successes and failures in the adjustment of a rapidly expanding people into a series of varying environments. At every step man wrestled with nature, and usually gave in—at least partially. Through each step, the history of the American nation is to be told in terms of man's use of the resources and materials of Nature.

Not only the history of the United States, but the whole history of the western world as well is involved in the story of the human use of resources. Occidental history is, from this standpoint, divisible into three great periods: (1) the period of meagerness, (2) the period of abundance, and (3) the period of readjustment.

The Period of Meagerness. All through what we

have been accustomed to call the ancient, medieval, and early modern stages of the western world, Europe was, in terms of society's ability to produce food, shelter, clothing, fuel, and other things for human support, overpopulated. Overpopulation, of course, is never measurable in terms of the man-land ratio. Instead it is a relative and varying matter resulting from the operation of an equation consisting of population, natural resources, and the technological equipment then in existence for reshaping resources into human necessities. Through these many millennia of time the people were poor and land hungry, the standard of living low, and the average life span short. Misery was accepted as the inevitable lot of the common man. Inventions and improvements were made, of course, but whatever advantages they conferred were rapidly swallowed up by an almost immediate increase in the population. Throughout these millennia of privation there were occasional waves of monasticism. Large numbers of people withdrew from participation in the economic life of a world which offered so little reward for competitive struggle, and sought meager security within walled cloisters. In the world outside, the king or noble usually had fewer luxuries than an unskilled laborer enjoys today. It was indeed a period of meagerness. It ended, however, in the period following the year 1492.

The Period of Abundance. The Columbian discoveries opened up a new and unused world and dumped it in Europe's front yard. A highly selected group of Europeans migrated to America and founded New Spain, New England, New France, New Netherlands, New Sweden, and finally Alaska and the Russian River Colony. On their foundations the United Colonies arose, and later the United States of America.

The population pressure in Europe was relieved somewhat by emigration, but even more so by the huge stream of resources which flowed back to that continent. It is extremely enlightening to note that fleets of European fishermen were anchored off the American shores within less than ten years after Columbus' first voyage.

In America, the population increased at first slowly, and then later, at a bewildering rate. It began to eat rapidly into natural resources, accumulating such a surplus that mechanical improvements could easily be financed. Each new improvement merely accelerated the process. Fortunately the resources were rich and abundant—extensive forests and grasslands, fertile soils under a wide variety of climates, vast waters, unbelievable amounts of minerals and other raw materials. As J. Russell Smith writes in *Men and Resources*: "The European colonists found in North America a continent with a greater variety of resources than any other continent possesses. . . . Because the colonists in this continent of riches

thought that the resources were endless, the American people became wasters, the greatest wasters in the world." What ensued may without exaggeration be described as a four hundred year orgy of waste—a veritable Roman holiday.

Most Americans now living grew up within a national psychology of "inexhaustible resources." The public had never heard anything else until Theodore Roosevelt's White House Conference in 1908. One still hears that expression occasionally, but American leaders in general no longer use the term very often, nor very vociferously.

The Period of Readjustment. The second period of history ended during the early years of the twentieth century. The last trickle of "movers" in covered wagons died away in 1907 and 1908. The remaining coal, phosphate, forest, and waterpower lands in the public domain were soon withdrawn from private entry. Homesteading continued for a time, but the land available was either marginal or submarginal, or else it required expensive reclamation. The period of abundance was over. Since 1910, man has entered a period of readjustment. Actually it is a "period of choice." Man must make a choice between continued waste with eventual return to meagerness on the one hand, and resource conservation and planning with sustained well-being on the other. Any history teaching which does not constantly teach this essential intellectual truth, is unreal to say the least.

GEOGRAPHY

Geography is the study of people in relation to their environment, i.e., a study of the human use of resources. In every locality, there are several classes of resources present, soils, waters, minerals, locational advantages, climate, topographic features, and so forth. Man exercises a wide latitude of choice in his geographic use of these resources depending upon a combination of immediate necessity, historical background and heritage, cultural level, deep-seated folk behaviour, and arbitrary choice and accident. Certainly no two human groups would make identical use of the resources of any environment.

The human use of Manhattan Island through three hundred and fifty years illustrates this quite graphically. The Amerindians used it for hunting and fishing. The Dutch used it for fur-trading and farming (bouweries). The English and Americans used it for commerce and fishing. Then immigrant foreigners came in and manufacturing developed after 1860. Today, commerce and manufacturing continue, but the island has become the greatest financial center of the world. Obviously the human use of resources has shifted several times. We say, therefore, that the geography of Manhattan Island has changed from time to time, even though the physical environment

(the physiography) has remained fundamentally about the same.

Man's use of resources is often not what it should be; *use* is frequently *misuse*. Physical resources are wasted, depleted, or destroyed. Biotic resources are not protected, even exterminated. Scenic values are defaced. Human resources are exploited or neglected. Communities are allowed to grow into wasteful and inconvenient patterns. Since geography is the study of man's adjustment to his environment and the use of its resources, it is but one step further to the discovery of where that use is misuse. An additional step is the formulation of a plan for improving that use. Anyone who doubts that our human geography can be improved, is simply one degree less blind than the person who fails to see that our present human geography is full of faults. Geography and conservation are simply opposite sides of the same thing. Geography is the study of things as they now are, conservation and planning is the study of things as they could and should be. Conservation, therefore, is applied geography.

Any geography of the United States which is not organized and taught about the conservation motif is, therefore, very feeble and ineffectual stuff. The duties and opportunities facing teachers of geography are fully as real, and even more direct and immediate than those facing the teachers of history.

CIVICS

There has been recently a growing emphasis upon civics in public education. Just what is civics? Is it learning the state constitution, or how laws are passed? Is it learning how the milk supply is procured, or about the work of the fire and police departments? No, it is primarily an imparting of that knowledge and a cultivating of those judgments which make more alert and discerning citizens.

Is a person a good citizen who knows all about our laws, public officers and political machinery, but who is ignorant of the use of resources, their waste, abuse, neglect, or destruction? Three-fourths or more of our laws deal with, or bear directly or indirectly upon the use of resources. Can one vote intelligently or help choose representatives who in turn will vote upon such matters, if he is uninformed upon the basic issues?

Do we realize that every institution—the First National Bank of New Orleans, the Yacht Club of Seattle, the Mellon Art Gallery, the High School of Wichita, Kansas, the Masonic Lodge in Anita, Iowa, and the Desert Sanitarium in Tucson, are supported by resources. Do we realize that a large proportion of our resources are being wasted, and often stolen from beneath our very noses?

Are we indifferent to floods in Louisiana, to forest fires in Oregon, to the waste of coal in Illinois, to

the depletion of oil in Texas, or to the ruin of soil in Georgia or Oklahoma? Do we see that the values of human living are being destroyed all over the nation by allowing self-centered, socially ignorant realtors to design our towns and cities in such manner as to make them unfit for the next generations of Americans, and what is worse, to freeze them for all time into such patterns?

Are we willing and anxious to face facts? In April, 1940, W. J. Cameron, radio commentator for the Ford Motor Company, complained about the appearance of books portraying the seamy side of American life, condemning authors who expose poverty and human distress. The implication of such comments is that we are slandering America if we print disagreeable truths about her. Millions of Americans will agree with Mr. Cameron that to be good citizens we should shut our eyes to unpleasantness and keep our minds sunny by thinking about pleasant things. Walter E. Myer, however, very cogently asks, "But do we serve the United States by this kind of myopic smugness? Or do *Grapes of Wrath*, *Tobacco Road*, *The Plow that Broke the Plains*, and so forth, perform a civic service?"

During the last seventy-five years or so, our rate of resource exploitation has mounted alarmingly, surpassing that of all previous generations put together. J. Russell Smith has called this, "thoughtless wastefulness." Gifford Pinchot termed it, "wilful waste leading to woeful want." Clarence I. Henrikson once suggested that perhaps it is only the result of a "rugged individualism" which so far has rejected all attempts at long-range public planning. It is all these things, plus ignorance. In accepting nature's resources without feeling obliged to educate our youth as to their care and proper use, we have been like the cow who accepts without any reflection whatsoever (and certainly without any sense of obligation) the fodder and bran which are brought to her—wasting most of it while she eats what she wants.

In terms of civics, the waste, misuse, and destruction of resources is everyone's concern because it bears directly upon the nation's welfare. But are we prepared individually to make it our business; or is the editor of the *Saturday Evening Post* right when he declared that during the last few decades, and particularly since 1932, we have seen "the beginning of a headlong flight from individual responsibility?"

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

The chief task before the teacher of civics today is to educate our youth to recognize and assume individual responsibility for public welfare. The major job of the geography teacher is to teach pupils to see and evaluate the good and the bad in our pattern

of resource use, and to visualize a better pattern. The primary function of the history teacher is to give the student a perspective upon our present relation of human society to its resources, and from past lessons to convince him that our present destructive mores are neither inevitable nor excusable.

The obligation of the social studies in general should be to inculcate in each young American, a desire and a determination to be a member of a going concern—a citizen of a permanent society, not a member of a transient nation promised early decadence through the wastefulness and indifference of its citizenry.

Revised Historical Viewpoints

RALPH B. GUINNESS

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THE NORTHWEST FOREIGN-BORN AND THE FARMERS IN THE ELECTION OF 1860

Lincoln probably owed his election to some clever political strategy among the voters of the Old Northwest. The farmers were won over to his support despite their obvious opposition to the protective tariff and the foreign-born were enticed away from the Democratic Party.

In the decade before 1860 many foreign-born settled in the Old Northwest. They had migrated there not only in search of land but also for freedom from European political persecution. In Indiana, Michigan, Wisconsin and Minnesota they were quickly enfranchised at intervals ranging from four months to thirty. They settled in their own communities where unfamiliarity with our language made them dependent upon the foreign language press and foreign-born leaders. Among such were Schurz, Koerner, Stallo, Hassaurek, Willich, Scholte, Rusch, and others.

Before 1854 many had enrolled in the Democratic Party owing to its traditions of Jeffersonian Democracy. However, by this time, the party's avowed championship of slavery and its opposition to free homesteads prepared the way for their ultimate inclusion in the ranks of the Republican Party. The transition was not easy at first because there were trends in the Republican Party which seemed indicative of an anti-foreign prejudice. This prejudice was evidenced notably by Greeley's statement in *The Tribune* that he would support for President candidates such as Bell, Bates or Bott who had been associated with the Know Nothing movement through their former American Party activities. Further evidence of an anti-foreign prejudice seemed indicated by the proposal of the Republican legislature of Massachusetts that its naturalized citizens were not to vote until two years after attaining citizenship.

Various leaders in the Republican Party sought to overcome this trend and the suspicions of the foreign-born. In Illinois in 1860 Lincoln was prevailed upon to make a statement, published in the *Staats Anzeiger*, attacking proposals for discrimina-

tion against foreign-born voters. The opposition in Illinois of the *Belleviller Zeitung* so impressed Norman B. Judd of the National Republican Committee that he publicly repudiated the action of Massachusetts, denying that in any way it reflected the opinion of the party.

The foreign-born leaders won a victory at the Chicago National Convention. They drew up a statement at a caucus presenting their objections. Carl Schurz presented them to the convention declaring that he spoke for 300,000 foreign-born voters. Schurz and Koerner were on the platform committee which drew up the Dutch Planks: one for free homesteads and the other for no discrimination against foreign-born voters.

During the campaign the foreign-born leaders actively worked for Lincoln. Schurz and Koerner visited many states representing Lincoln as the champion, not only of freedom for the Negro, but for the foreign-born. The foreign press actively supported Lincoln. In July seventy-three German papers were reported as favoring the Republican cause. In many places entire German Democratic clubs went over to the Republicans. Among the Scandinavians there was an almost universal enthusiasm for Lincoln and his party.

While no actual figures are available, conjecture based on an analysis of the Census indicates that in each state the foreign-born voted for Lincoln. In Illinois probably over 68,000 votes were cast for him with a 12,000 majority over Douglas. In Indiana about 26,000 foreign-born votes for Lincoln undoubtedly contributed to his 24,000 plurality over Douglas. In Ohio there were about 65,000 votes while his majority was 45,000. Wisconsin gave Lincoln a 21,000 majority but the foreign-born vote was probably over 56,000. In Michigan the foreign-born vote excelled Lincoln's majority over Douglas by 10,000.

The supposition that the bulk of the foreign-born vote was cast for Lincoln is based upon the universal pro-Republican sentiments of the foreign language press and the memoirs of their leaders. (This might

be substantiated by an analysis of the votes in the definitely known foreign "colonies" in each state.) For the seven northwestern states Lincoln's majority as a whole was 149,807 while conjecture places the Republican foreign-born vote at over 283,000, just short of the 300,000 claimed by Schurz. It would seem that Lincoln could not have carried the Northwest without their aid, for as Dodd once estimated a change of one vote in twenty would have defeated Lincoln.¹

Another element in the Northwest, the farmer, was won over to the Republicans by clever strategy. While on the one hand Republican Congressmen were seeking Pennsylvania's electoral vote by advocating an upward revision of the tariff, party strategy compelled silence in the West. Although local western interests favored protection, influential papers such as the *Cincinnati Commercial* and the *New York Post*, widely quoted in the West, warned against it. There were many old-time Jacksonian Democrats in the western Republican following who could be counted in opposition to a high tariff.

At the National Convention in 1860 the Pennsylvania delegates found the West cool to a high tariff plank. The resolutions committee finally adopted an ambiguous plank which could be quoted by partisans as favoring free trade or a high tariff. Lincoln gave eastern tariff Republicans cautious acknowledgment that he had been a tariff Whig, but felt the question should not then be agitated. At the convention on the second balloting 48 out of Pennsylvania's 54 delegates shifted to Lincoln. His nomination was hailed by the *Philadelphia North American* as the best assurance of party support for the high tariff.

¹ Donnal V. Smith, "The Influence of the Foreign-Born of the Northwest in the Election of 1860," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XIX (September, 1932), 192-204.

In the campaign the tariff was the dominant issue in Pennsylvania and New Jersey, but the rest of the East stressed free soil, homesteads and administrative reforms. The tariff issue was dominant in the Western Reserve and the southern Ohio iron regions. Central Ohio under the leadership of the *Ohio State Journal* opposed it. The *Cincinnati Commercial* said the grain-growing sections did not need protection.

The Whigs in Indiana headed by Henry S. Lane of the *Indianapolis Journal*, championed the high tariff, as did Schuyler Colfax in the northern *St. Joseph Valley Register*. However, southern Indiana made little use of the tariff issue. In Michigan the Republican State Convention endorsed the tariff, supported by the *Milwaukee Daily Wisconsin* and the *Madison State Journal*.

Northern Illinois strongly favored the upward revision of the tariff, while southern Illinois took a mild attitude. The Republican State Convention in May of 1860 evaded the tariff issue while endorsing party planks on free soil, homesteads and equality for foreigners. Lincoln dodged any endorsement of the tariff, referring inquirers to the party plank in the National platform. In Missouri the Republican State Convention ignored the tariff issue.

Despite the trend of the Democrats of the West to the Republican Party there were protests that if it meant to champion the Old Whig principles they would not stay with the party. One protestant declared that the party after settling the western territorial question would split on the tariff and open the way for triumph in 1864 of the free trade policy. The Civil War temporarily buried the protest until the rise of the Liberal Republican revolt.²

² Thomas M. Pitkin, "Western Republicans and the Tariff in 1860," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XXVII (December, 1940), 401-420.

Hints From the History Program in England

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Can the secondary school history program in the United States be improved by a study of the English program? We know that the philosophies and policies of education in the two countries reveal many striking differences. Nevertheless, certain English practices in the teaching of history might contribute to the improvement of the American program.

In the first place, English schools emphasize the knowledge of their national history in relation to

the contemporary European situation during each epoch of English history. In a few American schools also, American history and contemporaneous European events are learned not only in the same course but in the same unit. This practice apparently contributes to a better understanding of historical relationships than does teaching European history and national history as separate, unrelated subjects.

Many teachers in England have the gift, which

most Americans seem to lack, of appealing to and seizing the imagination of their hearers by relating history vividly and dramatically.

Another significant English practice, which is also used in many schools in the United States, vitalizes national history by relating it to local history. This deserves greater emulation in America, especially in localities rich in historical associations. Some English publishers offer special editions of books on English history including significant local history. For example, Rayner's *Middle School History of England* provides special editions of English history for Devon and Cornwall, for Lancashire and Cheshire, for Yorkshire, for Kent and for Northumberland and Durham. These editions contain maps and questions especially adapted to linking national and local history. In many places in the United States also, textbooks are being used which, in a more limited way correlate national and local history.

Excursions to local landmarks are another English means of employing local history to illustrate national history. Groups of youngsters accompanied by their history master or mistress take walking or bicycle trips to places having an historical significance. Their visit to a neighboring castle may assist them in vicariously re-living the historical pageant presented to them in the history text. When they visit a cathedral, their attention is called to its architecture, sculpture and stained glass, to the museum of its historical relics and to the beauty of its ecclesiastical furniture. The English practice of requiring pupils to keep written accounts of their trips produces evidence that they have observed and learned facts contributing to their understanding of formal classroom work.

In English schools participation in excursions and other club activities is not affected by eligibility requirements. In none do marks determine membership in history or allied societies. Some American schools, on the contrary, set up as criteria high marks in

formal courses, attendance in certain courses and try-out tests. May not the very pupils, whose history marks are low, need to have their interest in history aroused and may they not be the very ones requiring history club activities? This English example seems well worth following.

Recognition of physical health is implied in some of the English schools which, in their prospectuses, state the total time to be spent in doing homework for all subjects. If the student exceeds this standard the headmaster wishes to be notified. Two and a half hours is the maximum total amount of time required of the older pupils who are studying for the school certificate examinations. In contrast to this, some of the American schools require three quarters of an hour home preparation for each major subject. This would indicate the need, in American secondary schools, for the establishment of definite standards of maximum time to be spent by bright, well-adjusted children in doing homework.

In England, the teacher marks the pupil's history homework, clearly indicating mistakes, and requires the pupil to correct them and revise his paper. This practice not only assists the pupil to attain the objectives but discourages the teacher from making carelessly worded, time-wasting and fruitless assignments.

The average weight of the English history book is less than one pound compared to the average weight of two and one half pounds of the American text. Might not a lessening of the load the pupil must carry from room to room and to and from school reduce his physical fatigue and his tendency to poor posture?

Adoption of some of these English practices would contribute to the more successful attainment, in American secondary schools, of those objectives concerned with knowledge of history and physical well-being.

The Electoral College in Statu Quo

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Questions concerning the reform of the electoral college are raised by the American electorate every four years, by American college and secondary school students every year. College and school texts generally devote little space to the subject of reform, and explain inadequately, as a rule, the shortcomings of the two most frequently proposed reforms: (1) the popular election of the President and Vice Presi-

dent and (2) the assignment of electoral votes in proportion to party polling strength.

(1) Under popular election, every individual vote counts. Each state will naturally seek to preserve and, if possible, extend its relative political power in the choice of the President and Vice President. Since suffrage qualifications are now determined by the states, the temptation will naturally arise in each state

to increase the total number of individual voters. For the northern states such an increase might entail the dropping of literacy tests, the reduction of age limits conceivably to as low as eighteen, the shortening of residence requirements in state, county, and district, and perhaps even the omission of the disqualification to vote from some categories of penalties for crime. Among these states, competition for an enlarged electorate might very likely result in a progressive debauching of suffrage standards, a race to the bottom of qualifications. Obviously such a development would be diametrically opposed to the recent progressively successful efforts to improve the electorate by raising the suffrage standards. Any lowering of standards along the lines indicated would unquestionably have baleful effects in state and local government and might operate to give new life to political machines now tottering.

For the South, with its suffrage restricted now largely to the whites, popular election would mean acceptance of a decidedly weakened position in the choice of the President with all of the political consequences implied therein or else the granting of suffrage to Negroes now disfranchised. It is not likely that the fifteen states with heavy Negro populations would ever ratify an amendment offering them such a choice of modes to political suicide. But assuming the adoption of such an amendment by consent of three of these states and all of the rest, the resentment of the South would probably be bitter, throwing the nation right back into the "bloody shirt" era. The outcome of such bitterness would be incalculable.

Obviously, one way to avoid the progressive debauching of northern suffrage standards would be to adopt at the same time an amendment authorizing Congress affirmatively to prescribe uniform qualifications throughout the country. This might work satisfactorily for the northern states, but *vis-à-vis* the South such a statute would run into many of the difficulties encountered by some of the post-Civil War statutes affecting the relations of blacks and whites. In the final analysis, national officers, not as now state officers, would have to enforce such a statute. Likely, *both* the North and the South would resent such affirmative national supervision of the Presidential election.

Other difficulties in the path of a popular election amendment occur. In relation to each other, the large populous states would gain little by it. If the reapportionment of Congressional seats is fair, these states receive their just weights in relation to each other under the present system. If a uniform suffrage standard is enforced under a popular election system, they would similarly enjoy a just weight in relation to each other. But the small states, now overweighted in the electoral college because of their possession of the two votes for their Senators, would

lose their present advantage under a popular election system. These states are not likely to surrender cheerfully that slight advantage. From another angle, a half dozen large states, chiefly industrial, could under popular election determine the choice of President. The small and the thinly populated states are not likely to welcome such a prospect. Schemes intended to offset such a possible dominance by industrial states by requiring a plurality in a majority of states or some other similar counterpoise would probably present even more complexities in operation than the present electoral college system.

Another difficulty under popular election lies in the certainty that every state, every district, every precinct will be pivotal, indeed every single voter will be pivotal. Campaigning would have to be carried to every precinct of the country, increasing the cost and effort enormously. The leaders who keep the political parties functioning are not likely to view such a prospect with enthusiasm. Finally, popular election, if not accompanied by restrictive percental or other similar devices, would probably increase the number of national parties in the field, encourage splitter-parties and frivolous candidacies, produce more often than now minority Presidents, and impede the formulation of a feasible national legislative program. The electoral college as it now operates discourages the formation of third parties and encourages the maintenance of the two party system because the popular plurality in any state necessary to "take all" must constantly press toward securing a majority of all votes cast to assure itself of victory. Hundreds of thousands of voters probably vote for one of the major parties now because they desire that their vote count toward the election of a President and they know only the major parties have a reasonable chance of securing a majority in the electoral college. Under popular election, the major parties quite possibly would lose some of their popular support. Their leaders are not apt to encourage a change in a system toward such an end.

In short, while the electoral college as now constituted contains many functional evils, it has been retained because it avoids other numerous evils. Most important, under it states may maintain high standards of suffrage for their internal affairs and not lose their relative political power in the choice of the President. Under it, the South in its own way can progressively solve its own social and political problems arising out of the presence of Negroes without losing *its* relative position in the same national contest. As long as the South remains attached to one party and as long as present "availability" tests determine selection, neither major party is likely to select its presidential candidate from that section. That being the history since the Civil War and the prospect for the discernible future, the electoral

college facilitates reconciliation by the South to its fate by preserving for it its weight in the choice of the President and its autonomy in determining suffrage qualifications. In fine, under the electoral college system, North and South can now participate together in a national function with a minimum of friction. Substitute popular election and a Pandora's box of difficulties is opened.

(2) Proportional assignment of the total electoral vote of any one state to each party according to its proportion of the total popular vote polled in that state avoids some of the difficulties encountered under the popular election proposal but creates others nearly as insuperable. At least it permits each state to maintain its own suffrage standards and to retain its own existing relative weight in the choice of the President. It also commendably avoids breaking the political peace between North and South. But it would most probably encourage the formation and growth of minor parties, each party, however small, receiving its fractional share of the state's total electoral vote. The present major parties are not likely to welcome such a change. They would, to be sure, avoid the present gamble of "take-all-or-none" of the state's electoral vote and receive instead their just proportion of the total electoral vote, but with the likely prospect that that just proportion will dwindle as major party supporters drift over into minor party ranks. From the point of view of the formulation of a national legislative program behind which nearly a majority of the electorate can rally, it probably would not be wise to encourage the appearance of several minor parties with a national strength no longer negligible. The major parties, with all their shortcomings, still hold the nation together better than any conceivable bloc of minor parties likely could.

Not the least of the difficulties attending the proportional assignment method would be the very great probability that none of the candidates for the Presidency would receive a majority of the total vote in

the electoral college. Under the present constitutional arrangement, such elections would be thrown into the House of Representatives, where a President would have to be chosen from among the three highest candidates, each state represented in the House being entitled to *one* vote, a majority of votes being necessary to a choice. Under present conditions, with great disproportionality in the distribution of population among the several states, such an election by the House of Representatives might be regarded as an evil of first magnitude. A system which starts out to give proportionality thus concludes by inviting an election by the House of Representatives disproportionately. And, further, assuming this to happen often enough, Presidents so elected by the House of Representatives would become increasingly beholden to the House. This would operate in time to change the character of both the House and the Presidency, to what ends we know not.

Obviously, the throwing of the election into the House could be avoided by means of another constitutional amendment providing for election by simple plurality of the electoral votes. This would permit a choice and give certainty but at the price of inviting the recurring probability of minority Presidents. Such a solution would not maintain the prestige of the office of President and might very well handicap national leadership at a time in the affairs of nations when leadership is increasingly important.

Upon analysis, therefore, each of these proposed reforms produces certain difficulties and fails to solve others. As a people we cling to the electoral college as it now operates not only because of our political inertia but more importantly because it appears to be the least undesirable of several possible ways of selecting a President. The minor reform of dispensing with the human electors is, of course, desirable and feasible, but that leaves the electoral college substantially *in statu quo*.

Geographic Games and Tests

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The October, 1941, number of THE SOCIAL STUDIES contained the first of a series of geographic games and tests planned for courses in geography, history and the social studies in general. The series will be continued throughout the year.

The difficulty of the games may be increased

by omitting the answers found at the bottom of some of them, by putting a time limit on the completion of them, or by assigning them simply for study. There will be about 100 games in the entire series so that there is provided a wide range from which selection to fit particular needs may be made.

G 33. "SEEING AMERICA FIRST"

Where in the United States would one be best able to see a

1. Glacier? _____
2. Geyser? _____
3. Huge cavern? _____
4. Active volcano? _____
5. Crater lake? _____
6. Great delta? _____
7. World's greatest canyon? _____
8. A desert? _____
9. World-famous waterfall? _____
10. Great lava plateau? _____
11. World's greatest fresh water lake? _____
12. Extensive sand dune area? _____
13. Bed of an extinct extensive glacial lake? _____
14. A lake of salt water? _____
15. Fiorded coast? _____
16. Petrified forest? _____
17. Coral islands _____
18. Famous natural bridge? _____
19. World's largest artificial lake? _____
20. Land below sea level? _____
21. Meanders and ox-bow lakes? _____
22. An oasis city? _____
23. A vast swamp? _____
24. Fall line? _____
25. Oil wells in the sea? _____

G 34. OUR CITIES

Each of the following should suggest an important city of the United States. Select the *most important* in each case:

1. The "movie" industry. _____
2. Cotton textiles. _____
3. America's largest winter resort city. _____
4. Manufacture of optical goods. _____
5. Ships enter it by the Golden Gate. _____
6. Agricultural implement making. _____
7. Silk goods. _____
8. Famous for its great flour mills. _____
9. Hub of New England. _____
10. A ship canal made it a seaport. _____
11. America's greatest fish city. _____
12. The world's greatest center for rubber tires. _____
13. Fur and leather goods city. _____
14. Shipping of iron ore. _____
15. Woolen goods, especially rugs and carpets. _____
16. Greatest American port. _____
17. Leading raw cotton port. _____
18. On our longest stream not far above the delta. _____
19. An oasis city founded by the Mormons. _____
20. World's greatest railroad center. _____
21. American port closest to the Orient. _____
22. Automobile center. _____
23. City of breakfast food cereals. _____
24. Meat packing. _____
25. Furniture manufacturing. _____

G 35. RIGHT OR WRONG IN THE UNITED STATES?

Some of these statements are right, others wrong. Correct the wrong ones by changing a word or two. Do nothing with the others.

1. Cleveland on the Ohio River is a great industrial city.
2. The Erie Canal, joining Lake Ontario with the Hudson River, has been a great help to New York.
3. The Mississippi empties into the Gulf of Mexico through a delta in the state of Louisiana.
4. There is a difference of three hours in standard time between our eastern and western coasts.
5. No part of continental United States is in the torrid zone.
6. The Soo Canals around Niagara Falls are a great aid to navigation.
7. Philadelphia, on the head of Chesapeake Bay is one of our great ports.
8. The Rocky Mountains are about as far from the Pacific as the Mississippi River is from the Atlantic.
9. Of the five Great Lakes, one and only one, is entirely within the United States.
10. Most of the lakes and natural waterfalls are in the glaciated part of the country.
11. The driest part of the country is in the Great American Desert.
12. The temperatures at Key West naturally change but little throughout the year.
13. Of the underground products coal is the most important.
14. The Great Lakes form the largest body of fresh water in the world.
15. Boulder Dam is built on the Rio Grande River.
16. Southern California gets most of its rain in the winter.
17. In general rainfall increases northward from the Gulf of Mexico.
18. Our national forests are located mainly in the West.
19. Although mining so much coal, New England is industrial.
20. Most of our mechanical power is now obtained from water power.

G 36. TO WHOM DO WE SELL? FROM WHOM DO WE BUY?

Our trade with certain countries or regions is affected by the facts stated below. For each fact listed, state what foreign lands are chiefly affected in their trade with us.

1. *Campbor* is now being made from turpentine. _____
2. Practical substitutes for *shellac* are now available. _____
3. We are now making considerable *nitrate* from the air. _____
4. Petroleum refining is now producing *iodine* as a by-product. _____
5. Various treated fabrics are being substituted for *leather*. _____
6. Both *rayon* and *nylon* are becoming increasingly popular as substitutes for silk. _____
7. *Rubber* made in the laboratory is now practical though at a high price. _____
8. Glass and paper are used to a limited extent in place of *tin*. _____
9. Southern pine can now be used for *wood pulp*. _____
10. Thousands of *tung* trees have been planted in our South. _____
11. Stainless steel requiring *chrome* is now much used in buildings and automobiles. _____
12. Our steel industry requires much *nickel* as an alloy, but we have practically no domestic mining of that metal. _____
13. Imported *soy bean* seed has started an important agricultural and industrial American industry. _____
14. Cheaper *vegetable fats* and oils are tending to replace high-priced *animal fats* in our diet. _____
15. Lacking cheap skilled labor makes it difficult to produce *silk* or *tea* in the U.S. _____
16. Americans have become large consumers of *coffee*—now averaging over a pound a month per person. _____

Pictures as Aids to Learning in the Social Studies

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The utilization of tangible community resources and the increasing use of pictorial materials in published textbooks and other available forms suggests a growing conviction that we should endeavor to clothe the verbal abstractions in learning with reality. Pictures, in various forms, provide one of the most effective means to objective teaching.

Pictures may be classified as to their method of representation including paintings, drawings, cartoons, prints, and photographs of actual scenes and events or reconstructions of them. They may be classified in terms of the forms in which they are made available to the student. These include textbook pictures, albums, prepared picture studies in series, wall pictures, loose prints, stereographs, lantern slides, film strips and stills, and silent and sound motion films. Then they may be classified in terms of their accuracy and authenticity ranging from the best photographs on the one hand to the imaginative and impressionistic drawing or painting on the other.

The abundance of pictures and the fact that they create lasting impressions suggest that extreme care should be exercised in their selection. The following characteristics of educational pictures should be sought in making this selection: (a) Pictures should be accurate or authentic. Photography provides the nearest approach to accuracy. However, due to the recent development of photography, we are dependent upon paintings and drawings for the bulk of pictorial historical records. The accuracy of these is dependent upon the skill of the artist in representing what he saw or, in case he was not present to observe the event, upon his skill in constructing the representation on the basis of the most reliable data regarding the event. (b) Pictures singly and in series should be centered in such a way as to direct attention to the principle thing or idea which they seek to portray. (c) Pictures should stress a point or truth of sufficient importance to justify the use of the time required to observe or study them. (d) Pictures should be thought-provoking and bear interpretation. These features may result from centering supporting details around the major point which the picture seeks to represent and through appropriate captions. (e) Pictures should adhere to other recognized principles of art such as the appropriate use of color and the distribution of light and shade.

If the teacher feels that she is not competent to make a selection of individual pictures for instructional purposes she will do well to remember that the pictures in her textbook and other books which she may be using have been carefully selected by the authors and publishers of these works. Beyond this she may rely upon reputable production and collection authorship in the field. This suggests such outstanding works and collections as: (a) The Knowlton Series published currently in the illustrated section of *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*; (b) The Pageant of America in album and lantern slide form; (c) The Pageant of a Nation Series painted by J. T. G. Ferris and the Lehmann Wall Pictures; (d) Keystone lantern slides on "Expanding Frontiers" and other subjects; (e) The Earl W. Hildreth Collection of Historical Prints; and (f) The Eastman Teaching Films, Fox Films, Chronicles of America Photoplays and other collections in silent and sound form.

According to Ernest Horn "the primary purpose of all pictures, from flat prints to sound films, is to infuse the phenomena of social life with reality and to assist the student in building concepts that are clear, accurate, and meaningful."¹ Pictures develop a sense of reality upon which the clarity of meaning largely rests. They activate the imagination by "giving it something to feed upon." They stimulate questioning on the part of the students which leads to the more aggressive search for knowledge. By encouraging exact observation, raising of questions, and the projection and testing of inferences they become the basis for exercises in critical thinking. Finally, because the use of pictures results in the enrichment of meaning, stimulation of interest and imagery, and critical thinking, they contribute to the efficiency and permanency of learning.

Pictures may be used for the purpose of launching a unit. In this case they should be used to direct attention to important phases of the unit, to initiate a chain of thought, to arouse interest, to capitalize or expand student experience, and to provoke questions on the part of the class. Specific reference should be made to picture materials for study in the student guide sheets. This will open the way for more intensive and systematic study of them during study or assimilation. This is the appropriate time

¹ Ernest Horn, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937), 381-383.

and place to make extended and effective use of pictures as aids to learning.

Teachers should be cautioned against the exhibit method of using pictures. To place a large array of pictures on a bulletin board with the expectation that the students will study them as the result of a passing suggestion will prove disappointing. Equally unfruitful are the common practices of sweeping a small picture before the vision of the class and passing pictures indiscriminately without adequate preparation for their study.

The use of pictures in secondary social studies instruction should be selective. Students should be made to feel the need of using appropriate pictures. If recognized points in a topic or discussion are difficult to see clearly, the students will be conscious of the fact that the selected picture should depict something concrete about the points in question. This is equivalent to saying that the context of the picture should be made clear to the students. Thus the picture becomes a means of stimulating interest and attaining clarity regarding the particular matter under consideration.

If a picture has been used during the period of exploration it may become the basis of more extended study during assimilation when the students will have a more adequate preparation for examining it. Pictures in series generally require a back reference and re-examination. This is particularly true of a reel of motion pictures. A single showing will give the students a general impression of the topic and its major details and a notion of the sequence which the pictures are expected to relate. This much is desirable. But more may be accomplished if, after a pointed discussion has ensued, the pictures are viewed a second time.

The first thing to be done when taking up the study of a picture is to determine the principal point which the artist or photographer wished to portray. Where is the center of interest? What does it relate? This done, an examination should be made of the supporting details. Do they provide necessary environment for the center of interest? Or do they actually draw the attention from it? This much attention to a picture may be sufficient for the purpose of clearing away the vagueness surrounding a given point.

Picture making is subject to inaccuracies. Some of these result from carelessness or haste on the part of the artist. For example, Weitenkampf relates that: (a) the James Madison picture signed Bona del Parte is Akin's portrait of Benjamin Rush with head and signature changed; (b) the A. H. Ritchie full-length portrait of Abraham Lincoln was originally one of Calhoun; (c) and that an artist-collector with an eye for humor united in one frame five eighteenth century woodcuts, each representing a gentleman in a

three cornered hat, the gentlemen being Richard Howell, Samuel Adams, Henry Lee, Governor Bradley of Rhode Island, and Christopher Columbus. The only appreciable difference is in the names.² Inaccuracies may result from the fact that the artist's impressions were based upon insufficient knowledge. Examples of such include: (a) King John signing the Magna Carta, while there was no written form of the document at the time, sitting in an eighteenth century army tent, when the event occurred in the thirteenth century; (b) Prescott at Bunker Hill in full regimentals, while it is recorded that he was in civilian garb, including a long seer-sucker coat; (c) Sergeant Jasper at Fort Moultrie picking up the stars and stripes, while his flag was that of South Carolina; and (d) Washington crossing the Delaware bearing a flag that had not yet been designed. Finally, inaccuracies may result from the improper use of color and other elements of artistic expression.

Henry Johnson points out that awareness of the factors surrounding pictorial representation will inevitably raise questions which go beyond the elementary interpretation of a picture.³ The fundamental question: "Are the facts represented in the picture true?" is one which secondary school students may consider with profit. An example of such a study, cited by Johnson, is to have the class check the accuracy of the four paintings of the landing of the Pilgrims by Sargent, Lucy, Gisbert, and Padday, published in *The Pageant of America*,⁴ against the account of the event by Edward Channing.⁵

Notations on the paintings in *The Pageant of America* are as follows. The Sargent painting was the first ambitious attempt to depict the landing of the Pilgrims. When exhibited in 1815 it made a considerable stir. As history it is worthless. Lucy's painting is in harmony with the moral and religious significance which was given the landing by Webster's Plymouth Rock oration, 1820, and Longfellow's poems. The picture shows a strong French influence in figures and costumes, for Lucy studied art and painted this picture in France. Gisbert's painting carries the religious aspect to an extreme. It repeats an error in Lucy's picture of cliffs rising above the water. The Padday picture strikes a new note. A determined facing of the wilderness is the most striking feature.

Obviously time will not allow an intensive study of many pictures in the classroom. It will fall to the

² Frank Weitenkampf, "Pictorial Documents as Illustrating American History," *Historical Outlook*, VIII (February, 1917), 48-52.

³ Henry Johnson, *Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools with Applications to Allied Studies* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940), 190.

⁴ R. H. Gabriel (Ed.), *The Pageant of America*, I (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1927), 200-201.

⁵ Edward Channing, *History of the United States*, I (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1926), 320.

teacher therefore to exercise judgment in the selection of pictures and in respect to the way in which they shall be used. At all times it should be remembered that: (a) pictures are instructional aids; (b) that they are representations of reality varying in degree

of accuracy; (c) and that their primary purpose "is to infuse the phenomena of social life with reality and to assist the student in building concepts that are clear, accurate, and meaningful."

The Preservation and Use of Clippings

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Have you ever felt at a loss to locate some magazine article of which you have only a dim recollection? Do you read something in July and put it away hoping to use it in December, but not finding it until May? Or, having carefully filed away these materials, do you feel that you do not get satisfactory results from their use?

The unplanned use of current periodicals and clippings may bring unexpected results. The slow or shy student, or the one whose home environment does not encourage wide reading, does not participate in an unplanned general discussion. Moreover, he is apt to feel some resentment or envy toward the classmate who glibly impresses both teacher and pupils with his impromptu discussion. The non-participating pupil may feel, perhaps justly, that an unprepared "bluffer" deliberately sidetracked the discussion.

How can the busy teacher deal with irrelevant offerings, biased viewpoints, inaccurate reporting, vague ramblings or doubtful authenticity? It is not to be wondered that many teachers, particularly inexperienced ones, feel it is easier and safer to depend almost entirely on textbook content. However, the planned use of wisely chosen materials is of uncalculable aid in enriching the curriculum and in keeping it up-to-date. I hope these suggestions may help others in making wider use of current materials.

Obviously, the efficient use of short articles, pamphlets, cartoons and pictures depends greatly on the manner in which they have been filed. I have used cardboard boxes, large envelopes and the regulation manila folders, but nothing has been as satisfactory as the covers of the large bookkeeping pads donated by the commercial department. The one shelf of my cupboard has a row of these standing upright so they can be easily withdrawn, labelled with the name of the unit illustrated, and arranged in the order in which they will be used. Posted on the cupboard door is a list of the titles in the same order so that pupils can easily take and replace needed folders. Special pictures for holidays and patriotic occasions and the Christmas song sheets are kept in one end of the shelf, plainly tagged.

Some of the pamphlets on pioneers in health which are given by an insurance company are used both in the course in social problems, under "Health," and in world history, under "Modern Progress." These are kept on another shelf, but in the proper folders appears a card bearing the titles and the location of the pamphlets so they will not be forgotten. Other pamphlet material, too heavy for the folders, is kept on the same shelf with notations in the proper folders.

Discussions from *Scholastic* are often suitable for use several consecutive years. The whole article is cut from one issue and placed with the other illustrations of the topic with a memo "Classroom Set, Vol. X, No. 15," and the date.

The National Association of Manufacturers, several railroad companies, bankers' associations and many individual firms furnish free educational pamphlets; these, with clippings from magazines and newspapers soon build up an ample supply for classroom use. After each unit is studied, it is wise to discard older items in order to keep the accumulation down to usable proportions.

Assuming that one has a goodly store of articles of varying length and difficulty, when and how shall they be used to secure the greatest possible student participation in the shortest amount of time? Can one avoid monotony in their use with a succession of topics?

One plan motivates the approach to a new topic by utilizing the part of the period remaining after a short quiz. As the pupil brings his paper to the teacher's desk, he receives an item, chosen as far as possible by the teacher with regard to the pupil's ability and reading rate. Especially interesting material may arouse the distinterested boy or girl, or easy material may bolster the self-confidence of the timid ones. In discussions on following days, one group will volunteer information gained from reading, another group will respond to questioning, while a third group (just hope it will be small) will show no evidence of any benefit from the time given to the supplementary reading. These will be discussed later.

A longer period remains after pupils have had ten or fifteen minutes' time to write on assigned topics at the blackboard. Pupils may give this time to reading while the teacher grades the board topics and prepares her notes for the review the next day. Or, half the class may write on the board while the other half reads. In this case, the oral report on new information is graded just the same as the written review of information gained from textbook.

Also, lending itself to this type of classroom procedure is the time left after tests have been returned and correction sheets completed. Pupils with high scores will have few corrections to make and should utilize the time profitably while poorer pupils occupy the teacher's attention. The habit of trifling over the table in a pseudosearch for a suitable topic can be broken if a businesslike check is made of the results. Another time adapted to the perusal of current topics is a period when part of the class has been excused for concerts, play practice, or any extra-curricular activity. Not only does the "left out remnant" gain a certain compensation through the use of choice materials, but they develop a sense of responsibility when they make reports to the whole class on its return. The teacher can do much to improve the technique of study when she deals with a small group.

For many topics, better results are obtained by using a whole class period and longer discussions. I shall not go into detail on the process of note taking for that has been described in a previous article, "Collateral Reading in the Social Studies," in *THE SOCIAL STUDIES* for November 1940.

Much variety is possible in the assignment of topics. In very short periods, no free choice is possible; but with well chosen items, this is unimportant. Simply place a pile of articles on the first desk of each row and direct the persons sitting there to take the top one and pass them back. Here let me interpolate a time saving scheme for the distribution of *Scholastic*, tests, books, etc. If the object on top is taken during distribution and placed on top for collections, the leader in each row can check missing ones almost instantly, providing they have been arranged by consecutive numbers to begin with. Row one invariably has numbers one to seven, row two has eight to fourteen, etc. When a pupil is absent, the test, etc., simply lies on the desk; if the following class uses the same materials, they are ready. One class distributes, the second or third class may collect. Should anything disappear it is easy to know who is responsible. It rarely happens that an absent minded pupil carries out *Scholastic*, but it is easy to secure its return. If I see the row leaders shuffling materials, I quietly step over and see what numbers were passed out of order—that is, placed under the pile instead of on the top. This is usually corrected

by a quiet, individual request for cooperation. Only once have I found it necessary to deny the use of *Scholastic* to a whole class because a large number were careless in handling them. I simply announced that I had no time to arrange the magazines for the next class, and since they wouldn't help in a matter which took not one minute of their time, they would do without the magazine. In a short time the class was willing to cooperate.

Having the supplementary materials properly arranged, the teacher may refer to them quickly and scan the item as the oral reports are given. Often the title above is sufficient to recall the gist of the article to mind. When reports are limited to one or two minutes, it is essential that the teacher know the facts or the essential point may be missed. When she makes corrections, the teacher should show why her selection was more important than the student's choice. Often I indicate by colored brackets the material to be discussed first. The oral report period is an opportunity for practical teaching, not a device for an easy period for the teacher. When you hear the irrelevant ideas a poor pupil chooses from well written paragraphs, you understand why these people don't like to read. Skillful questioning will help separate the essential elements from the non-essential ones.

Sometimes in reviewing a whole unit, I assign subtopics by rows, e.g., under "Communication," row one has primitive devices; row two, telephone; row three, telegraph, etc. If pupils are returning from the board, they may take articles as they pass their seats, finding each set of materials on a different window sill.

The opportunity for free choice should be given only when the teacher can give her undivided attention to the selection, and when the pupils realize they are reading for information as well as for pleasure. A few tactful words can direct the slow student to something fitted to his ability; sometimes the bright but lazy one may be challenged: "If this is too hard for you, bring it back." Ignore the fact that he had probably intended to pick an easy one with many pictures. Be alert for the chronic exchanger and the long time hunter who hopes to fuss around unnoticed. Nip the plans of these wastrels in the bud or your period is ruined. You will probably have at least one who will condescendingly remark: "I don't see anything to interest me." You may remark: "This collection from *Collier's*, *Saturday Evening Post*, *The Atlantic*, etc., shows what the American adult is interested in. Why don't you try this and see why others liked it? Unless you start reading now, you will not be able to report to the class any worthwhile information." You may have to stress grades with these, but it is preferable to read more for pleasure than for grades. This momentary personal

attention is an asset in building up a fine understanding between pupil and teacher. Just as fine an opportunity comes in the personal direction of the reading.

For many readers, this really becomes a period for remedial reading. Call attention to the fact that in the social studies one reads in order to answer the *W* interrogatives: "Who," "What," "When," "Where," "Why." Incidentally, if your pupils say, "Wat," "Wen," "Wy," direct them to place a finger before their lips so they can feel the expulsion of air which accompanies the correct pronunciation of "Wh."

Profitable reading depends more on the classification and correlation of ideas than on memory. As miscellaneous facts are given, the teacher hurriedly writes on the board an outline which shows the unity or correlation of the parts. Suppose you are working on "Communication and Transportation." Write it across the board as the title. "Communication" under that as *A* on the front board will take all of one day's discussion, probably several; but *B* on the board in the back is a reminder that "Transportation" is part of the same unit. A few questions will bring out the fact that there were three distinct phases in "Communication" and on the three board spaces write:

- I. "Communication before the Development of Electricity."
- II. "Communication Utilizing Electric Wires."
- III. "Communication by Wireless."

If there are many poor readers in your group, do this before the reading is done. With average groups, let the reading be finished, then question and jot the points in their proper space as they are developed. Questions may be similar to these.

Who has a topic explaining number I? How many of these deal with something which appeals to the eye? Arabic 1 under Roman I is "Communication through the Eye." As reports are made the outline rapidly grows and you see—a. Smoke Signals. b. Mirrors or Heliograph. c. Pictures. d. Picture Writing. e. Alphabetical Writing. f. Writing on Clay Tablets. g. Writing on Papyrus.

Before going on, criticize the outline to show relationships:

Should the items be rearranged to show chronological development?

Do you need headings under Writing.

Would it be better to say d. Writing, and place the others as sub-sub topics (A)—(B), etc.

Obviously Roman II is "Communication through the Ear." Arrange the topics on speech, yodeling, cannon signals, tom-toms, megaphones, etc., as you did the previous topic.

By questioning, bring out the limitations of these means:

Over what distance could men communicate?

With how many people could they communicate?

Did communication beyond reach of eye and ear depend on previously arranged codes?

Could weather interfere?

Good questioning on topic II should emphasize the difference between the telegraph and the telephone. The modern practice of delivering telegrams by phone is confusing to the child who probably never gave a thought to the difference. At the Chicago Fair, for the bulletin board, I secured samples of the tape bearing pencil marks made by a replica of the Morse telegraph. Reports on pamphlets from the telegraph companies show the chronological development from the original transmission of a code appealing first to the eye, then to the ear of a trained operator, to the transmission of letters by teletype. The Bell Telephone Company also provides much free material.

Topic C—The Use of Wireless, is an especially good field for developing real thinking:

Was Marconi's work a continuation of Morse's or of Bell's?

Did the first wireless depend on reception by the eye or by the ear?

What was first transmitted without wires, a sound interpreted by a prearranged code, or the sound of the human voice?

Is the radio in your home a wireless telephone or a wireless telegraph?

Where can you find a two way wireless telephone?

Unless you ask questions, your students will listen to the reports and yet miss the real point.

Before leaving "Communication," a snappy review should blend the textbook material with the supplementary materials, so that the unity of the topic is emphasized.

Frequently, it helps to have an outline written on the board before the class begins to read. The topic "Transportation" could be simply organized as:

- A. Transportation on Land
- B. Transportation on Water
- C. Transportation in Air,

but this organization depends more on memory.

This outline is more thought provoking.

- A. Transportation by Human Power
- I. Means

1. Carrying burdens
2. Driving beast of burden
3. Rowing boat
4. Pulling or dragging

- II. Limits

1. Limits of Weight

(Continued on page 27)

ILLUSTRATED SECTION

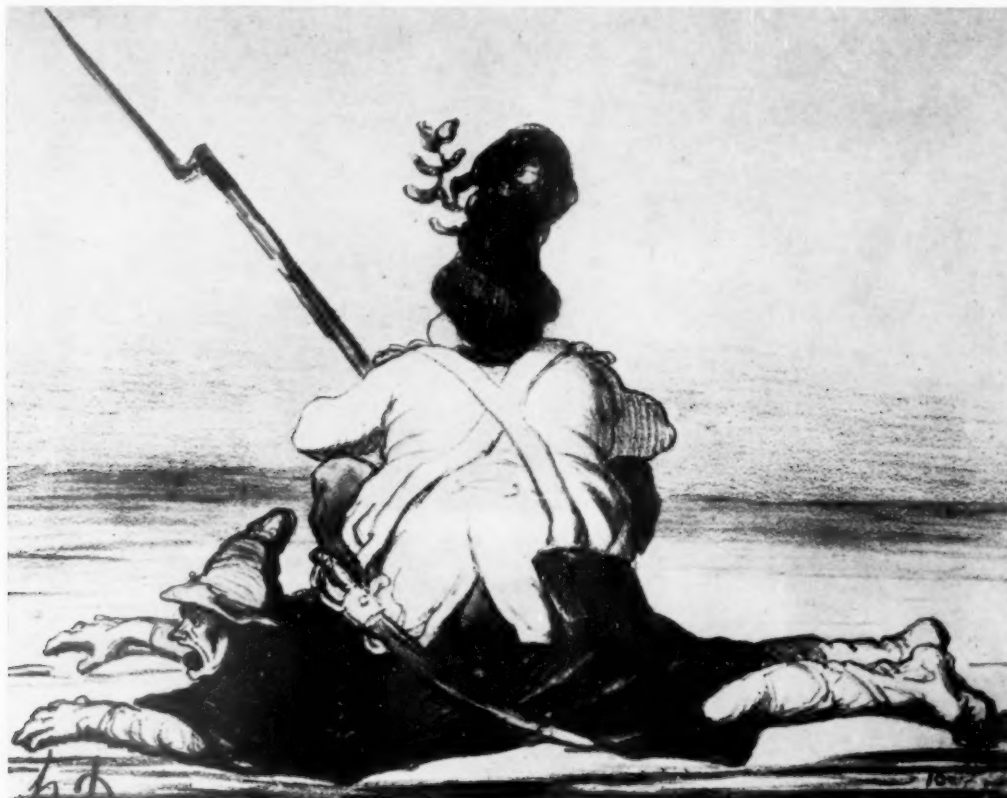
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New York University

THE UNIFICATION OF ITALY AND GERMANY



The Italian Situation (*Situation de l'Italie*) by Honoré Daumier, appearing in *Le Charivari*, February 21, 1859. An Austrian soldier is sitting on a prostrate Italian peasant.



The Awakening of Italy (*Le Reveil de l'Italie*) by Honoré Daumier, appearing in *Le Charivari* May 7, 1859. Like the giant Gulliver the peasant has roused from his slumber.

THE UNIFICATION OF ITALY AND GERMANY



Garibaldi's volunteers on board the *Washington* on their way to Palermo, Sicily, from a sketch made by Thomas Nast for the *Illustrated London News* of July 7, 1860. (Nast was later to attain fame for his cartoons.) In the brief article accompanying the sketch the volunteers are described as "packed like herrings—1400 on board this small steamer of 400 tons." The *Washington* and two other vessels left Genoa June 9 carrying altogether 3000 troops.



A sketch made on the scene by the special artist of the *Illustrated London News*, Frank Vizetelly, and appearing in the issue of June 16, 1860. He accompanied the sketch by the following account, "At the Porta Felice a barricade had been raised and on it one of Garibaldi's officers plants the Italian flag amidst a storm of grapeshot, that, wonderful to say, leaves him untouched. All the steeples in the vicinity have their bells ringing as a signal for those who have arms to congregate at the spot, and soon the barricade has a host of defenders."—Dispatch of June 2 from Palermo.

THE UNIFICATION OF ITALY AND GERMANY

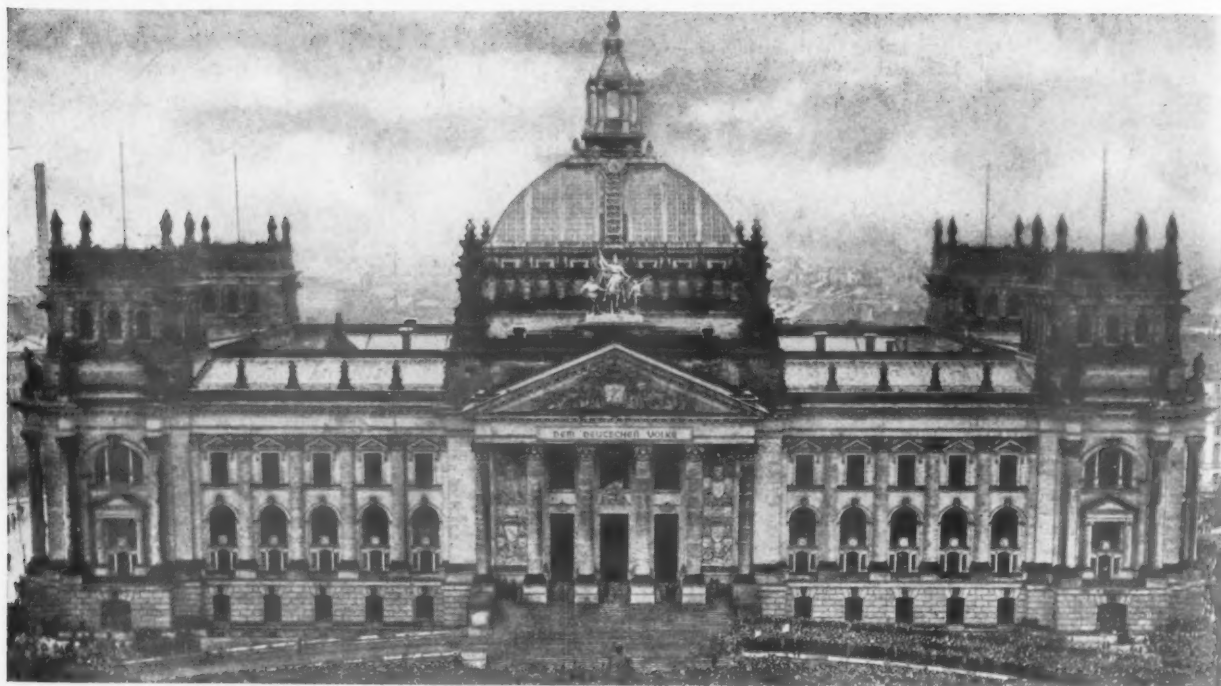


"The Surrender of Sedan." This painting, and that below, are the work of Anton von Werner who during the Franco-German War accompanied the Third Army Corps and became practically the official German painter of the war and the new empire. Although not present at the scene he reconstructed it from first-hand accounts. The French General von Wimpfen is at the left end of the table; Von Moltke stands at the right. It is twelve o'clock midnight of September 1-2, 1870, at Donchery near Sedan.



Proclamation of the Empire, January 18, 1871. The artist received a telegram from the Crown Prince to be present on this occasion and has portrayed the scene at the moment when the Grand Duke of Baden stepped forward and "cried in a loud clear voice, 'His Majesty Emperor William the victorious, Hurrah! Hurrah! Hurrah! . . . The mirrors in the Hall shook with the noise of an enthusiasm such as these walls had never yet heard,'" reports the artist. The Crown Prince stands at the right of his father; Bismarck and Von Moltke are in the foreground. The painting was presented to the Emperor by the German princes on the occasion of his eightieth birthday in 1877.

THE UNIFICATION OF ITALY AND GERMANY



The Reichstag was created as the result of the unification of Germany but originally designed by Bismarck as a "debating society." The building is one of the architectural monuments to the glory of the First Reich.



T. F. Healy Collection

"Bismarck Has Resigned Again," a cartoon appearing in *Harpers' Weekly* (June 26, 1880) from the pen of the famous cartoonist, Thomas Nast. It directs attention to the relations between the Chancellor Bismarck and Emperor William I, emphasizing the differences which arose between the two men on matters of policy. Bismarck is represented as carrying iron (*eisen*) in his bag and blood (*blut*) in a bottle.

2. Limits of Distance
- III. Aids
 1. Wheel
 2. Oar—B Paddle
 3. Pulley
 4. Lever
- B. Transportation by Mechanical Power
 - I. Means
 1. Water
 2. Steam
 - a. Wood
 - b. Coal
 - II. Limits
 1. Weight
 - a. Land
 - b. Sea
 - c. Air
 2. Distance

The outline aids in the speedy assimilation of facts. Direct the pupil to develop thoroughly the part of the outline assigned to him. He may be assigned a topic and be responsible for securing the information, or he may be given an article and be responsible for volunteering the information at the proper place in the discussion. In either case, there is a realization of a duty to the group.

Some materials lend themselves to detailed reports while others must be greatly condensed. Sometimes I announce that oral reports will be limited to one or two minutes and ask each student to give the very

best of his report in that time. Often we have informal polls at the end of the period asking:

- From what pupil did you learn the most?
 Who reported the most unusual happening?
 Do you want to hear a longer report on any topic?
 On what topic do you wish to read for yourself?

The one minute limit tends to focus attention on the fundamental core of the article, at the same time checking the verbose bluffer.

Work of this type affords an opportunity for correlation with other subjects. Pupils borrow the materials for debates, public speaking programs, health classes, or for historical background in languages. Often a pupil suggests that I borrow something he has used in another teacher's class. I hope that other schools have that high spirit of cooperation that is found in Johnstown High School between teacher and teacher, as well as between teacher and pupil.

The planned use of time in no way curbs the initiative of the wide reader but gives him an opportunity to share his reading. Oral reports of planned reading are a supplement to the written report, all of which are graded and many of which are posted on the bulletin board.

The planned use of current articles gives rich dividends in return for the time used. The course is kept abreast of the times. The pupil gains self-confidence in using his vicarious experience and he grows in ability to evaluate and correlate.

A Neglected Objective in the Teaching of History

W. B. FAHERTY

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A tendency is growing among teachers of history to narrow down the objectives of their teaching. A knowledge of present day affairs not through a study of the past but through discussion of current events, practice in parliamentary procedure and other democratic processes, seem to be the key concerns.

Yet the average educational guide lists many more, easily obtainable and perhaps more important objectives. Calvin O. Davis gives six: (1) an appreciation of the social and spiritual evolution of the human race, and the important influence of some individuals; (2) an understanding of existing social conditions and activities; (3) a basis for anticipating the probable trend of human affairs; (4) a spirit of cooperation in the undertakings of society; (5) a background

for other studies; (6) mental training.¹ Henry Johnson lists among the most frequently sought objectives: "Discipline of the memory, the imagination, the judgment; the setting up of ideals of patriotism, of conduct, of social service; the illumination of other subjects, especially geography and literature; and the establishment of intimate relations with current events."²

Both of these writers mention, you will notice, although in slightly different language, that one of

¹ Calvin O. Davis, *High School Courses of Study* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1915), p. 141.

² Henry Johnson, *Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools with Application to Allied Studies* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940), p. 108.

the aims of history teaching is to provide a background for other subjects. To this motive I will confine this paper.

To consider history as a background of other subjects might seem, at first glance, to reduce history to a subsidiary position in the curriculum. Far from it! We are dealing with a secondary motive; and furthermore, just as all materials in a wall help the wall to stand, so all courses help one another in the education of a student. The study of feudalism, to give an example from my own experience, will help a student understand and appreciate Sir Walter Scott's *Ivanhoe*. The reading of *Ivanhoe*, in turn, will help him know the people and customs of feudal times. But that is stepping too far ahead!

Let us list certain high school subjects in which the advantage of an historical background is more obvious: public speaking, English literature, the classics, social problems, military science and government.

The value of history in the study of government is obvious. It requires no proof here. And since the history teacher quite frequently is instructor in government also, we will not delay on that. Nor will we spend much time on military science, since the number of schools teaching that subject is limited. Suffice it is to say that the professor of military science will ordinarily delve into the exploits of Napoleon or the campaigns of Stonewall Jackson to explain some military problem.

Men of prominence in the science of physics receive due place in the average history text: Copernicus, Galileo, Newton, Watt, Fulton, Bell, Morse, the Wright Brothers and Edison, and possibly one or two more. In the physics class their scientific importance will be discussed; in the history class the students learn how they influenced men and nations.

History is the laboratory for the study of social problems. Since human nature is the same, the problems that one generation faces will be much the same as the problems faced by many other generations. The agrarian difficulties that stirred Tiberius Gracchus are quite similar to those which face his modern successors. Unemployment, the breakdown of rural life, overpopulation in crowded cities—these and others were faced by men of different nations at different times. How they solved them can give us the key to the solution we can use.

The public speaking class, in its debate and discussion work, relies to a great extent on historical material. Recall the topics in the major debate con-

tests of the past few years: the Anglo-American Alliance, the government control of railroads, states' rights versus centralization. All three require a knowledge of history.

This fact should encourage the historian to offer suggestions to the debate coach on important questions, and follow through with bibliographical references. Ordinarily, the debate coach will relish the help. A plan could be worked out so that the debate topics would coincide with the courses in history. Thus, if second year students study American history, the debate coach could assign these problems: States' rights, Monroe Doctrine, League of Nations, isolationism and interventionism, the electoral system, and the like. Each problem would come at a time shortly after the topic has come up in the history class. The League of Nations would come right after the study of the World War; the electoral system around the time of an unusual campaign, say that of Blaine-Cleveland. The teachers could work out a similar plan for the European course.

In the study of English literature, there is great opportunity for cooperation. The historical background will help the pupil understand the work of literature; the literature, for its part, will give a fine insight in the lives of people of past times. Consider for instance, Hawthorne's *House of Seven Gables*, a required reading in many schools. This story requires considerable explanation of early New England history; and in turn helps greatly in giving the attitudes and ideas of the people of that section. Kipling's *Fuzzy Wuzzy* and Chesterton's *Lepanto* arouse considerable interest in the historical events they depict. Excellent use of historical background is made by Roberts, Gibbs, Scott, Hough, Churchill and Sabatini among others. For every boy who reads a history book other than the text, ten or more will read one of the novels of these men.

The teacher of ancient history can give a good account of the historical importance of Julius Caesar, which will greatly aid the teacher of Caesar's *Commentaries*. The translating of Caesar will give the student a vivid view of the Roman military machine on the march.

In conclusion, cooperation will help to avoid unnecessary repetition of the same material by two instructors. I suggest that the history teacher take the first step by becoming acquainted with the attitude of those teaching the same classes, with the materials covered, with the textbooks used. It should be mutually advantageous.

Economics: A Teaching Aid to History

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It was a class in American history, the topic under discussion dealt with the "Cleveland Bond Deal." As the story unfolded itself, the confused expressions on the faces of the students became more pronounced. A hand suddenly cut through the dismal atmosphere to break the spell: "Will you please explain Gresham's Law and how it affected this particular political incident?" That is the type of problem found by teachers of the social sciences in every classroom in this country. Economics has been the subject of the commercial student, it has been the forgotten course for the academic curriculum.

Economics in the secondary school is an emphatic part of the social science program. Many reasons for a study course in economics can be offered aside from the need for a better understanding of history. The average boy or girl, living in a world as scientific as we have today, discovers that the newspapers carry articles dealing with price fixing, inflation, taxes, and many other topics which to him mean little or nothing. These facts hold a meager interest because they are not understood. We, as teachers who are turning out thousands and thousands of young graduates each year into a world where these facts are its life's blood, owe it to each to send him out prepared to be part of daily living. Some might say that in years gone by our students knew nothing of these intricate matters yet they managed to succeed. True this may be, but they were entering a far different world, one that was geared to a slower pace and whose requirements were not of such a high standard.

The difficulty perplexing most school officials is how is it possible to fit economics into a schedule that is now already crowded. Of the many suggestions that might be offered, just two will suffice to prove the trite, yet true, maxim: "Where there is a will, there is a way."

The subject, as usually taught to the commercial student, consumes the work of one semester. One plan has been devised whereby for academic students, the work is divided on the broad basis of one year with three classes each week for the first semester, and two classes weekly for the second semester. This would permit the working of the regular schedule with a slight change in the study hall program of the academic students.

Another program, adopted by the author, which has proved very successful, has been the selection of a voluntary course that calls for two sessions a week

for the entire year. When this plan was first approached, it was with fear and trepidation, for extra-curriculum activities in the classroom are usually not very popular. This fear did not remain for any length of time. The class gradually grew and soon it was finally necessary to place a limit on the number of students. In all modesty, it must be said that this was due not to the instructor's ability, but rather is attributable to the large amount of student activity whipped up in the class. Since this was a wholly voluntary matter, quizzes, texts, and outside readings were going to be passed up until the enthusiasm was rolling at a high speed. After some time, it was possible to give small assignments of a practical nature. These included asking neighborhood merchants for their reactions to new legislation effecting their business, or consulting their parents on some economic problem that was approached in class.

To prevent the interest from lagging, a field trip was planned for each month. The first trip took the class to a savings bank, where the officials were more than gracious, and willingly assigned one of their young officials to conduct the group and answer questions. The next month found us at the Stock Exchange. Here, everyone watched with amazement the market in full swing. And so it went, next was an investment brokerage office, the Federal Reserve Bank of the district and finally, the Custom House.

The advantage of these trips were twofold: they gave the pupils a clear view of the actual proceedings and they gave incentive for questions that aided more than a text could ever hope to do. This last fact was the most important for it kept the interest high, and it made the history more understandable. This class has become a regular part of the institution's curriculum, and each year it grows so, that now two members of the faculty are necessary to conduct the work.

The question that necessarily might arise in the mind of the average teacher following these plans, is if the result obtained is proportionate to the effort expended. To that question, a very emphatic "yes" may be given. In the three years that this latter plan has been in effect, the marks of the history classes have moved up sharply, while the number of failures have decreased by almost fifty per cent. It has appeared that the most important result has been that the average student, after a course in economics, finds it much easier to comprehend the political and social issues as they appear in history.

Whether these plans appear feasible or not, the issue that must be met is the importance of economics to the high school student. Our students should be trained from the practical side as well as from the theoretical. At the present time, our country is arming itself for a struggle against the oppressors of democracy. This great task will bring many economic questions that the teacher of history could readily answer by example, if his students were trained in economics. Regardless of the present crises, eco-

nomics is a subject that needs more attention in our schools. It is not a course to be followed only by business students; it is a study that all pupils must be exposed to, if they are to have a well rounded education. It will be well for the teacher of the social sciences to keep in mind that the history student with the economic background, is the best equipped pupil in the classroom and in the economic-social world of which he is so vital a part.

Visual and Other Aids

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EVALUATING FILMS

Because films are playing an ever increasingly important role in the classroom of the social studies, it becomes imperative that adequate training in the intelligent selection and use of this medium of education be a part of the teacher-training program in our normal schools, colleges and universities.

A significant experiment has just been completed in a social studies methods' course in the College of Education, Ohio State University, dealing with the selection of films for use in the classroom of the social studies on the secondary school level. This activity was a phase of the more comprehensive problem of establishing criteria for the selection of all types of teaching materials. The class, under the direction of Glenn McConagha, was aided in the undertaking by Roy Wenger of the Bureau of Educational Research. The experiment was under the general supervision of Frederick C. Landsittel, Director of Student Teaching.

During the class discussion of materials for use in teaching the social studies, the following criteria evolved which was based upon the students' formulation of their philosophy of education:

1. Will these materials meet the needs of the pupil?
2. Will these materials stimulate reflective thinking?
3. Will these materials help intellectualize democracy?
4. Will these materials help solve the pupil's conflicts and tensions?
5. Will these materials challenge the pupil's beliefs and values?

Upon successive days the following sound films were shown to the class: *Around the Acropolis*, *Armor Galleries*, and *And So They Live*. Following the showing of each film the remainder of the class pe-

riod was devoted to an oral evaluation of the film.

The film, *Around the Acropolis*, gives a brief view of ancient Athenian ruins followed by an indiscriminate picturization of elements in the life of modern Athens. It was judged average or poor by a majority of the class. One member of the class, in a written evaluation of the film, stated:

I can't see where this film would meet the needs of the pupil, stimulate reflective thinking, intellectualize democracy, or meet the other requirements of the criteria. This film was created from a "hodge-podge" of scenes of Athens and put together with no definite purpose in mind.

However, the students discovered one value inherent in the film which had not been anticipated. Ordinarily, in world history courses a particular geographical area is intensively studied during only one time span. Therefore, pupils often fail to realize fully that a particular culture, especially in the ancient history period, may continue to exist, evolving through the centuries and today remain a society with many dynamic features. This film by emphasizing aspects of life in modern Athens, would aid the students in making a meaningful connection between ancient and modern Greece.

The second film shown, *Armor Galleries* depicts and explains the various types of armor used in the middle ages. Included in the film are demonstrations of typical activities of an armored knight. A majority of the class judge this film as average in terms of their criteria. One student believed that the teacher could raise the following problems and issues as an outgrowth of the showing of the film and thus promote the objectives implied in the criteria:

1. The obviously elevated position of the knight in those days could lead to a discussion of the class stratification of that period, and the implications for such a social arrangement for democracy.

2. The problem of the serfs would be raised here.
3. The problem of vocational opportunity could be discussed, and a comparison could be made between that society in which a man's vocation was determined mostly by birth, and ours in which there is considerable opportunity for choice.
4. The whole attitude of personal devotion to an overlord could be compared with our social civic loyalties.
5. The feudal economy with all its implications for individuals and groups could be raised.
6. Comparison could be made between the agrarian economy of that period with our industrial one. The problems of each could be raised.
7. The limited methods of communication, as evidenced by the use of the horse, could be considered as effecting their problems just as our machine age of speed effects ours.
8. The comparatively slow social change of that period could be discussed and compared with the rapid period of social change in which we live. The problems which this raised for us should be considered.
9. The emphasis of the movie itself on the type of garment worn by the knights is indicative of their preoccupation with war. This could provoke a question of the causes of war, of the things which they feared and the things which we fear, and of the effects of war on a culture.
10. The knight might also remind us of the conflict between the rulers and the church, and so precipitate a discussion of the relation of church and state in a democracy.

The third film, *And so They Live* depicted the rural life in a hill country community whose land was depleted through erosion and unscientific agriculture. In this film the inadequacy of the school program in terms of community needs received emphasis.

The following statement is a student's evaluation of this film:

I thought this by far the best of the three movies and would rate it as excellent material for the social studies teacher to use. The purpose and objectives seemed clear. It showed very graphically the conditions in which many of our people have to live, the almost overwhelming problems which they face, and the woeful inadequacy of the schools in training youngsters to be better equipped in facing their daily needs

and problems. It showed clearly and inescapably the real danger spots of our democracy. The following are some of the areas and problems which grew right out of the picture, and which the social science teacher would want to develop:

1. Lack of economic security and any real hope for future betterment among many of our people.
2. Depletion of the natural resources of our country.
3. Lack of knowledge on the part of these people as to what the basic trouble is, and how to deal with it.
4. If security cannot be found on the farm the people will drift to the city and become dependent on public relief.
5. Problem of economic and class stratification as a threat to our democracy.
6. Health problem of a large number of our people.
7. Such a group of dissatisfied people are ripe for propaganda against democracy. Danger of such an unadjusted, cynical group.
8. Housing conditions as one of the basic problems of democracy.
9. Inadequacy of the present school system to meet these problems.
10. Raises question of what is now being done to solve these problems and leads to discussion of what can be done.
11. Raises whole question of whether political democracy can be a possibility without economic and social democracy.

It is hoped that the above experience will enable the students, when they become teachers, to select and employ films for the more effective realization of their objectives, thus making visual aids an integral part of their educational program.

This experience should also better equip the prospective teacher to guide secondary school pupils in establishing criteria for the evaluation of commercial films.

NEWS NOTES

Films

Brandon Films Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York City, has produced a documentary housing film entitled, *A Place to Live*. This was filmed in Philadelphia in cooperation with the Philadelphia Housing Association and is available in 16 mm. and 35 mm. sound, upon a rental or sale basis.

The Y.M.C.A. Motion Picture Bureau, 347 Madison Avenue, New York City, has issued the following two-reel, 16 mm. sound films upon a free loan basis: *Army in Overalls*, depicting the work of the CCC in preparing military reservations for the

United States Army; *Power for Defense*, in which the manufacture of military equipment using TVA power is shown.

Radio

A *Teachers Manual* for Columbia's School of the Air of the Americas is available to teachers and school libraries free of charge. This manual contains the 1941-1942 program of this feature with suggested educational activities and suitable biography for each program. Requests for the manual should be sent to the Educational Director of your nearest CBS station.

In addition to the "School of the Air of the Americas" broadcasts, Columbia is inaugurating the following two new series of programs of interest to social studies teachers:

"Spotlight on Asia," consisting of talks by authorities on Far Eastern affairs with the purpose of familiarizing the public with the problems of the Orient and the relationship of the United States with these problems.

"What Freedom Means," which brings to the microphone distinguished speakers expressing themselves upon questions vital to contemporary American freedom.

More information concerning the above programs and other CBS educational programs can be secured by requesting that your name be placed upon the

mailing list of the *CBS Student Guide*, published by the Department of Education, Columbia Broadcasting System, 485 Madison Avenue, New York, New York.

In a recent issue of the National Broadcasting Company's bulletin entitled *This is the National Broadcasting Company*, the following statement is made concerning "America's Town Meeting of the Air":

This year, we have greatly simplified our service to groups and will send them, in advance of each meeting, a two-page printed Preview giving the background and issues of each subject under discussion, together with suggested reading lists. After the program, they will receive the transcript of each broadcast in the *Town Meeting Bulletin*, which contains letters from listeners and other timely articles.

This year, we are cooperating also with teachers and schools to a greater degree than ever before. The Town Meeting Preview will be incorporated as a special supplement in "Our Times," which reaches over 200,000 school children each Monday in time for the following Thursday broadcast, and "How to Use Town Meeting Program" will be found in the magazine *Civic Training* which also reaches 25,000 teachers on Monday.

News and Comment

MORRIS WOLF

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BRAVE NEW WORLD

H. G. Wells, a few years ago, was moved to remark that man today is like a monkey alone in a rapidly moving motor car, overwhelmed by the disproportion of his opportunity. Perhaps there is reason for a less melancholy view, now. For men seem unwilling to allow circumstances alone to pick the path for the car of history and are of a mind to guide it to a road, among the possible roads, closer to their heart's desire. The stream of suggestions about the terrain ahead and the choice of avenues is growing in volume.

Professor H. C. Brearley of the George Peabody College for Teachers sees a class revolution now in progress. In "The End of Gunpowder Democracy," in *Current History* for November, he argued that mechanized warfare has destroyed the power of the common man to defend himself and his rights, and is therefore destroying the kind of democracy we have inherited.

The notion that men's rights are proportioned to their ability to defend them is a familiar one. The Greek phalanx, the British long bow, and the musket are cited as indispensable causes of the increased rights of common folk, although by no means sole causes. If the claim is true that a people have rights to the extent that they are physically able to defend them, then we are in the midst of a revolution.

Professor Brearley observes that our democracy has rested upon gunpowder. The gun in the hands of John Citizen has defended his home, his country, and his rights. But the gun is no longer adequate. Like the nobility of old, a small group today who operate aircraft, tanks, and other mechanized implements of war are more than a match for a nation of infantrymen.

If John Citizen has had taken from his hands the weapons with which to defend his rights, will he lose them? Is the democracy we have known, being revolutionized as the present grim struggle goes on?

Is it being revolutionized by the new inventions in weapons, as happened before? Is a new class arising to power, based upon its ability to control and use the modern war mechanisms? Perhaps social invention may be able to provide the means for preserving democratic control of the new armament.

In this changing terrain that Professor Brearley describes, men, for different motives, seek to grasp the wheel that they might steer the car of history to their advantage. The German attempt is one of the most prominent. It has required aggression against people in other lands, unhampered by any traditionally moral considerations and bounded only by the limits of the globe. The man who has taught the German leaders this policy, it is said, is the soldier and teacher, Dr. Karl Haushofer. His Geopolitical Institute of Munich has attracted attention far and wide for its painstaking research, its political philosophy, and its large number of devotees. Two recent articles about it, from the pens of prominent Europeans now living here, are particularly to be commended.

In *Harper's Magazine* for November, Professor H. W. Weigert, a scholar, official, and business man who fled from Germany after Hitler rose to power, described "German Geopolitics" as a workshop for army rule. In *Fortune* for the same month, Professor Robert Strausz-Hupé of the political science department of the University of Pennsylvania, until recently an editor of *Current History and Forum*, described "Geopolitics" as inspired by our Monroe Doctrine. Our spaciousness and our early closure of the western hemisphere to all nations beyond its bordering oceans for political or territorial expansion, became the seed from which sprang the German concept of *Lebensraum* as developed in the Geopolitical Institute.

Both articles discuss the genesis of the idea of the Eurasian Heartland and the principal features of the politico-military philosophy derived from it. Both draw attention to its aggressive nature, its contempt for the dignity of the individual and for human life, and its hostility to democracy. The *Fortune* article carries helpful maps.

A very different road is sought by men steeped in democracy. Instead of the road of aggression they seek the road of voluntary international cooperation. In *Common Sense* for November, in an essay on "Democracy vs. Nationalism," Assistant Secretary of State, A. A. Berle, Jr., pointed out why our common defense of freedom may be "forging a new world order based on cooperation."

The defense of freedom can bridge tremendous chasms. In 1775 a war began in this country to defend freedom. None then suspected that, fourteen years later, the federation called the United States would evolve from that struggle. Should we not now

strive for a similar evolution on an international scale? Conditions favor it, needing only human acceptance and assistance. Even two years ago who could predict the Anglo-Russo-American cooperation which now seems so matter of course? Three years ago the Lease-Lend Act and the repeal of the Neutrality Act were not to be dreamed of. We became so keenly aware of the need to maintain a free Britain that we have established economic arrangements to meet it. Mr. Berle observes that, before long, we may go a step farther and use economic arrangements—tariffs, use of our gold reserves, export policies, etc.—to maintain a peaceful world. Mechanisms are being used now for war purposes, in many of our alphabetical agencies, which could be adapted to the peace-time situation, if we felt the need sufficiently.

Mr. Berle was insistent that the solution of post-war world problems is a local matter as much as an international. Such local problems as re-employment, taxation and debts, and the re-direction of industry must be solved or the international problems cannot be. This is the essence of the democratic process, which requires the interworking of local and larger groups. No central group can grasp the complexities of the multitude of problems, a point made some years ago by Walter Lippmann. Such a group solves the problems by decree, suppressing individuality and ironing out differences by pressure. This is not the democratic way, which seeks to profit from the abilities and genius of individuals and groups. It requires, therefore, that the solution of local problems be geared into the solutions of larger ones. "The function of the cooperative machinery, national or international, is to assure conditions of order and supply which will give the greatest range of opportunity to these (local) groups."

Dictatorship has speed. But its end is decay, corruption, or revolt. Democracy, slower in results, is regenerative. Antaeus-like, it renews itself from the liberated capacities of all men. Mr. Berle listed some of the steps now being taken to grapple with the problems of peace: acceptance of the principle that peace shall be enforced; recognition of economic rights of nations; realization that communications and other major services should be internationalized. These and other principles we and others are now implementing. We may need a longer time than was taken in the days of George Washington, but we too can find the way, step by step, to those world-size institutions which will afford freedom to all men.

A close-up of part of the picture painted by Mr. Berle was provided by the fifth in the "Calling America" series, which appeared in the November issue of *Survey Graphic*. In more than one hundred pages the story is told of how America is "Manning the Arsenal for Democracy." The theme is industrial

relations and the defense program. Following a preliminary survey of the present emergency, men prominent in business and government discussed the interworking of labor, management, government, and the public. In conclusion, twenty-one men and women took part in a symposium on the question, "How can we speed defense production and at the same time preserve free labor and free enterprise?" Drawings, pictographs, photographs, and other illustrations add much to the value of the story. The whole number is framed in terms of democracy. However bitter the industrial struggle, unhappy the contestants, pressing our needs, and unjust the conditions, confidence is expressed in the ability of the American people to solve the problems by evolution rather than revolution, by the force of argument rather than the argument of force, and by democratic procedures.

LABOR

There is little doubt that a revolution is taking place in the national attitude toward labor and labor unions and in the national understanding of the rights and obligations of labor and management in the national economy. It is evident now that labor will have to accept greater social responsibility and will have to be much more democratic in union procedures while management will have to learn that rights of labor are a social right.

This emotion-stirring problem is analyzed in the November issue of *Congressional Digest*, as "Proposed Federal Regulation of American Labor Unions." Various national laws are summarized, and the federal agencies dealing with labor problems are described. An account is given of the principal nation-wide labor unions. The question for debate, discussed by prominent leaders, is "Should the Federal Government Regulate by Law All the Labor Unions in the United States?"

PUBLICITY

Occupational opportunities in the field of publicity are increasing. Edward L. Bernays, foremost public-relations counsel in this country, in "The Revolution in Publicity" which he wrote for the November 1 issue of *The Saturday Review of Literature*, paid much attention to the educational side of publicity. Publicity is not necessarily misleading nor objectionable propaganda. Much of it is socially valuable. No one can tell how great has been the good effect of publicity about matters of government, health, and foods. Even sculpture has been promoted by publicity given to soap sculpture. The social concomitants of publicity are among its most notable results.

Mr. Bernays commented briefly upon publicity since 1900, pointing out that four revolutions in the field have occurred since that date. Before World

War I an era of muckraking struck the nation and brought much legislation in its train. The World War period itself witnessed great efforts at mass education on war aims and how to achieve them. The 1920's were a period of industrial publicity in which industry came to realize the value of good public relations, although too often the social responsibility of industry was not recognized. That came in the fourth period, ushered in by the Great Depression, for which the public blamed business. More people came to appreciate that their businesses were affected with a public interest and that business had an obligation toward democracy.

More and more the value of the specialist in public relations is being grasped. Government is making greater use than ever of publicity to achieve its objectives and policies. Mr. Bernays' article is itself publicity for his profession. It is an educational account of the best in public-relations counselling.

Of interest in this connection is the evaluation of the Gallup polls by the distinguished Columbia University professor, Dr. Lindsay Rogers. In *Harper's Magazine* for November he gave a negative answer to the question, "Do the Gallup Polls Measure Opinion?" He regarded such polls with favor and had a high regard for the way in which the Gallup polls are conducted. But he argued that they record opinion, as a thermometer does temperature, and do not actually measure it.

Every effort is made, in the Gallup polls, to frame questions not to give a bias in favor of any answer, and to secure true examples of public expression. But the fact that so many questions are put to men and women just at the time when the subjects are stirring up the public the most is likely to evoke answers which would not be given to those questions if asked after weeks of reflection upon the subject. Many answers, also, may have qualifications which the Gallup procedure does not register. Nor does it give sufficient attention to those people, often a sizable group in the entire sampling, who do not answer "yes or no" but say that they do not know or are undecided. In short, the Gallup polls report which way opinions lie, but do not show why they are what they are. The inability of the polls to get down to causes and reasons, to the dynamics of opinion, makes them merely a passive register and not truly a measure.

To teachers, the Institute for Propaganda Analysis is probably the best known agency of its kind. Recently its president, Professor Kirtley F. Mather of Harvard University, announced the suspension of its monthly bulletin for the duration of the war crisis. The board of directors came to that decision when President Roosevelt announced that the nation was in a "shooting stage" of war. To continue to analyze propaganda without partisanship during such

a period would cause serious misunderstanding. Said Professor Mather, "Public opinion during a war crisis necessarily concentrates on helping the nation in every way possible to prosecute its major effort. At such a time, it is not practical to attempt dispassionate analysis of the steps being taken. . . ." For such analyses could be used nefariously by groups in opposition to the nation's major effort. Rather than sacrifice its integrity, the Institute has suspended its activities until the war period ends.

FILM OF LIFE

Students will find much interesting and valuable material in the November issue of *Natural History*. G. Miles Conrad, Assistant Curator of The American Museum of Natural History, describes "The Film of Life" in forty-four pictures, with brief explanatory paragraphs. He begins with the earth as part of the larger universe, shows how unique life is, and treats at length life's dependence upon oxygen, temperature, moisture, food, and pressure. Accompanying the pictures is a large, double-page chart of life-forms in the depths of the sea, on the land, and in the air.

A supplement to this is the article on "Why Pick on the Predators?" Sherman Baker, a deputy game-warden in Arizona, makes clear the important part that is played by carnivorous animals in maintaining the balance of nature and in conserving the resources men deem essential. He shows how the destruction of coyotes, mountain lions, and other such animals saves little in the total of American game while it greatly increases the denudation of forests, the destruction of crops, and the spread of animal diseases. He writes in popular style.

Other articles of interest, in this issue, are "The First Land Animals," "Jewelry Round the World," and "The Quest for the Smallest Fish."

WASHINGTON ODYSSEYS

For this, its second year, the National Capital School Visitors Council is expanding its work. Its 1942 Institute of National Government for Social Studies Teachers will be conducted from April 6-10, with The American University as center. In order to insure informality and intimacy, the number of teachers accepted for the institute is limited to seventy-five.

The Council's purpose is to afford teachers of the social studies opportunity to meet professionally with government officials, to observe their work and gain a more lively appreciation of the services of government to the nation, through first-hand contact. The program of conferences and visits is now being prepared and, as last year, will include major officials such as Cabinet officers and heads of outstanding agencies.

Between June 10 and July 4, seven Washington

Odysseys for high school students and their teacher-sponsors are being arranged by the Council in cooperation with The American University. Each Odyssey is a three-day program of sightseeing and visitation to the notable points of interest in the metropolitan area of the Capital. Each will provide for about 300 students from schools throughout the country. Sightseeing will be done by each school and its teacher-sponsors as a unit, but other activities will be shared by the students from various schools. Such promotion of acquaintance and friendship among youth from widely scattered regions is not the least valuable part of these programs.

The Council is a non-profit organization established to aid civic education by the use of the resources of the nation's Capital. Since charges cover only costs, they are low. Address inquiries to Dr. Henry M. Willard, Director, National Capital School Visitors Council, Evans Building, 1420 New York Avenue, Washington, D.C.

FOR THE TEACHER

Those concerned with post-war problems will find help in the tenth *Fortune* Round Table, a supplement to the November issue. It is a summary of the conference of leading men on the subject of "Demobilizing the War Economy." Questions holding most of the attention of the conferees dealt with problems of wartime plans in peacetime, the possible roles of housing and urban reconstruction in cushioning the transition from war to peace, requirements in industrial planning from the standpoint of peace, and what help may be derived from post-war expenditures by the government.

Three other articles in this issue of *Fortune* were of especial value to teachers and classes. An article on "Africa," notable for its maps and photographs, impresses readers with the coming importance of that vast, unopened continent, in the economy and politics of the world. A very long supplement to this account is that in *Foreign Policy Reports* for October 15. Louis E. Frechtling discussed "Africa and the World Conflict" from the viewpoint of history. He gave many facts about Africa, particularly from the angle of the military strategy of the present war.

From the brush of the rising young Negro artist, Jacob Lawrence, *Fortune* presented twenty-six pictures illustrating Negro life, especially in the post-war period of World War I when the great migration from the South took place (" . . . And the Migrants Kept Coming").

James Burnham, whose book on *The Managerial Revolution* has been called epochal, presented its thesis in his *Fortune* article on "Coming Rulers of the U.S." Technology is creating a new class, the managers of the tools and organizations of modern production, whether under a capitalistic system or a

socialist or a fascist. Corporation owners, financiers, and others are being displaced by those who carry out the indispensable and technical functions of management in a machine economy based upon mass production and automatic machinery.

Are you interested in "the fundamental elements of our domestic and foreign policy, and the relationship of the United States to the present war and prospective peace?" *The Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science for November, discusses them as parts of "Public Policy in a World at War." This subject is examined by nearly twenty scholars, American and foreign, from a half-dozen angles. Some sketched the nation's public policies historically. Others reviewed the two decades since World War I and the situation in which we find ourselves today. The demands made upon us now, by defense and by international problems, were outlined. In conclusion, the problems and prospects of post-war reconstruction were examined and probed from the standpoint of democracy's own survival and the nature of tomorrow's world.

"Russia Today" is a twenty-three page section in *The New Republic* for November 17. Such matters as public policies, armed forces, individual freedom, economic development, political machinery, and cultural development are discussed.

"The TVA Programs—The Regional Approach to General Welfare" is the subject of the entire issue of the November number of *The Journal of Educational Sociology*. The various articles described the TVA program from the standpoint of people, resources, agencies, and its contribution to the solution of a great American regional problem. Most of the emphasis of this number is laid upon the educational aspects of the TVA project.

The Research Division of the National Education Association has prepared a *Research Bulletin* (vol. XIX, no. 4, Sept., 1941) on "High-School Methods with Superior Students." The superior student is defined and his characteristics described. The bulletin presents the views of teachers on the education of superior students and sets forth actual high-school practices. Conclusions are drawn as the outcomes of the survey. This bulletin is an important contribution to high-school education. It can be procured, for twenty-five cents, from the association (1201 Sixteenth Street N.W., Washington, D.C.).

Professor Vernon E. Anderson of the College of Education of the University of Colorado argued at length in the November 15 issue of *School and Society* that it is time to discard "The All-or-None Theory of Education as Applied to American Life

Today." We have inherited the notion that formal education is given youth only, and that it should stop abruptly when he goes to work. Further education, as an adult, should be informal. In this day and age, says Professor Anderson, it would be much more beneficial if youth made a gradual transition from formal education to work. Like Dr. Judd of the NYA, he recommends a period when older students work and pursue studies together. His discussion is timely. It does seem that teachers must become conscious of the trend in this direction, for the stage for concrete action is being set by such agencies as CCC and NYA as well as by schools in the nation at large.

Bulletin No. 16 (May, 1941) of the National Council for the Social Studies is a source unit on *Teaching the Civil Liberties*. It was prepared by a joint Committee on the Social Studies appointed by the Council and the American Political Science Association. Others assisted in its preparation. Designed for teachers, the unit presents a wide variety of activities for classroom and student use. Suggestions for evaluation and for securing bibliographical material are included.

Early in 1942 it is planned to issue the second part of this project: a *Casebook* containing case studies of actual situations in which civil liberties have been challenged. In each case, the background, the course of events, and final decisions and outcomes will be given. Style and presentation will be designed to suit secondary-school pupils. Cross references to the *Casebook* are made in Bulletin No. 16. Inquiries should be addressed to the Council, at 1201 Sixteenth Street N.W., Washington, D.C.

In the November issue of *The Journal of the National Education Association* Dr. William H. Kilpatrick stated "The Case for Progressivism in Education," companion-piece to the statement of the case for Essentialism made by Dr. William C. Bagley in the issue of the preceding month (see this department for December). Dr. Kilpatrick differed in degree rather than in kind with his old colleague at Teachers College. He had no quarrel with the teaching of essentials, but he made it evident that at no time in the learning process must the learner himself be lost sight of. One concludes that there is a meeting ground for the two schools of thought and that education would benefit from the merger. Brief though the articles by these two distinguished educational leaders are, they are meaty enough to be chewed over for a long time before the last of their nourishment is extracted.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by RICHARD HEINDEL
University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia

Washington and the Revolution: a Reappraisal: Gates, Conway, and the Continental Congress. By Bernhard Knollenberg. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Pp. xvii, 269. \$3.00.

This thought-provoking volume tells no connected narrative. Its purpose is to correct certain widely entertained misconceptions concerning some of the military aspects of the War of Independence. The array of authorities weighed and found wanting is impressive, including as it does several of the best known writers on the Revolution during the last fifty years. Sir George Trevelyan, Henry Cabot Lodge, Paul L. and Worthington C. Ford, Albert J. Beveridge, Sir John Fortescue, and even such recent writers as John C. Fitzpatrick and James Truslow Adams, not to mention a galaxy of contributors to the *Dictionary of American Biography*, fall under Mr. Knollenberg's censure. He sees in Fitzpatrick's *George Washington Himself* a *raison d'être* for the present study, for this recent biography, from the pen of the compiler of the definitive edition of Washington's writings, necessarily inspires credence and has, in Mr. Knollenberg's opinion, largely undone the work of twentieth century writers like Sydney George Fisher and Claude H. Van Tyne who had done much to correct the faulty impressions created by their predecessors.

As to the points upon which Mr. Knollenberg seeks to set the world aright, he insists that there is no good evidence supporting the widely held belief in the existence of the "Conway Cabal," a conspiracy in the winter of 1777-1778 to displace Washington as commander-in-chief in favor of Gates. He portrays both Gates and Conway as far more capable and disinterested than they are usually deemed to be, and comes to the rescue of the oft-belabored Continental Congress. Not only does he point to specific instances where that body has been accorded undeserved reproach; he makes the point that Congress was executive as well as legislative, and that hence its "meddling" constituted the legitimate performance of its duties. He insists, against Fitzpatrick, that Saratoga was the turning point in the French alliance, acknowledging the while that this point has already been well established by others. Naturally the commander-in-chief does not come out of all this entirely unscathed. Knollenberg indeed pays eloquent tribute to Washington's strong qualities; his physical courage; his ability to keep his head in a tight spot; his lack of sectionalism; his freedom from nepotism in

an age which reeked with it; and his incomparable devotion to duty. But he feels that the evidence which he presents "reveals Washington's hypersensitiveness to criticism and morbid determination to prove himself always in the right; traits which led him to shift responsibility for his errors to others and to be unduly suspicious of the motives of those who ventured to criticize or differ with him. It brings out his misunderstanding of those whose social or economic status was different from his own, and shows his judgment in military matters was sometimes fallible." A fruitful source of error has been the common practice of accepting "any statement made by Washington concerning the men and events of the Revolution as representing final, unimpeachable truth," whereas the Father of his Country was capable at times of being highly disingenuous.

Quite aside from the salutary influence which this study will presumably have in reshaping popular ideas concerning the American Revolution, its heavy documentation and clear reasoning should have the happy effect of bringing the reading public into close contact with the raw materials and the processes of scholarship.

LEONIDAS DODSON

University of Pennsylvania
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Lands of New World Neighbors. By Hans Christian Adamson. New York: The McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1941. Pp. xiii, 593. \$2.75.

Written by the author of the *New Horizons* broadcasts of Columbia's School of the Air of the Americas, this book closely parallels the broadcasts and shows a strong family resemblance to broadcasting technique. By condensation and emphasis on only the most interesting characters and events the entire background of the history of the Americas is covered in less than 600 pages. Because of overemphasis on colorful personalities and omissions of more important, though drab, events, misconceptions of history result, and in several cases actual misstatements of facts are used to secure the emphasis desired by the author. In his efforts to arouse and keep the interest of the reader, little things like the true facts of history are not allowed to stand in the way of romance and high coloring. Yet for this very reason this book will probably appeal to a greater number of readers than do the many accurate and reliable histories which have been written about this region and period.

Owing to the author's "happy device of telling the story of each country by itself," there results more or less repetition, which perhaps has the advantage of making the hurried reader remember something of what he has read. Of the twenty-six chapters fifteen tell the story of the origins of the Latin American republics and of the present European colonies in the Caribbean and on the American mainland, three recount the search for the Northwest Passage and the genesis of Canada, and eight chapters relate the history of the United States, including Hawaii and Alaska from the beginning down to the present time. While in the later chapters as in the earlier ones the emphasis is placed on colonial history, the outcome of these origins is referred to only in a cursory way for the Hispanic American nations as well as for the United States.

The reviewer cannot portray his impression of this book better than by summarizing it as a series of highly colored portraits of romantic personalities and pictures of colorful events strung together on a line extending along the American continents from Hudson's Bay to the Falkland Islands in such a way as to imply a certain common relationship.

ALFRED HASBROUCK

Rollins College
Winter Park, Florida

Brazil: Land of the Future. By Stefan Zweig. New York: The Viking Press, 1941. Pp. 282. \$3.00.

This is a book written by a European who has seen his civilization fail, and has unexpectedly found release from Spenglerian determinism in the discovery of a new land. In that sense it is a provocative book. We see the author's naïveté of optimism reflected in a Brazil unnaturally bright, a paradise without race-hatred, class-hatred, or even political hatred, without greed and without ambition. We also see, in this dream of escaping rather than grappling with problems, the tragic permanence of the defeatist attitude. His questioning, for example, of disciplined effort *per se*, regardless of the content or aim of the ambition, is pretty much the state of mind that prepares the ground for fascism.

As an impression of a great country the book is remarkably inadequate. In the first, or intellectual, section, the author's premise prevents his seeing plainly, or even arguing out his observations. Thus, though he does describe the slave-capturing raids of the Paolistas, and the horrors of Amazonian exploitation, he concludes blandly that the Brazilian is peace-loving and the least bloodthirsty of men. Though he speaks of climate, endemic disease and malnutrition, he does not point out their relation to this quietism and to this uninterrupted exploitation of the working classes. He also fails, as a European, to realize how

much of the personal liberty so refreshing to him is simply the freedom of the frontier, a temporary matter of underpopulation. "Uncultivated, uninhabited, unexploited space" will not in itself create a good future. The future of all the Americas depends on our devising means to preserve these liberties as the open country disappears.

But it is not necessary to discuss this book so seriously. It will serve to balance the popular concept of Brazil as a dark, bloodthirsty (small) country of Spanish-speaking political revolutionaries. Its inadequacy is tragic only in the face of our need. We must have serious books about Brazil. These popular books give a strange effect of levitation when there are no fundamental texts to support them. It would not even be necessary to send people down for six months to write them: the Brazilians themselves have already done so. Why have none of the books of Gilberto Freyre, the great sociologist, nor the histories of Capistrano de Abreu been translated? Such texts would do more than a dozen tributes by Zweig to demonstrate the intellectual stature of Brazil.

ELIZABETH WILDER

The Library of Congress
Washington, D.C.

The United States and the Independence of Latin America, 1800-1830. By Arthur Preston Whitaker. (The Albert Shaw Lectures on Diplomatic History, 1938. The Walter Hines Page School of International Relations.) Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1941. Pp. xx, 632. \$3.75.

The people of the United States are discovering Latin America—or thus many think. The trumpeting of the discovery issue from a hundred sources—the biographical analyses of John Gunther, the pleadings of Nelson Rockefeller, the snatches of "fly-by-day" journalists and travel writers. Professor Whitaker makes it plain—through scholarship and studied inference—that what is happening today is not the "discovery," but the *rediscovery*, of Latin America. The first discovery occurred between 1800 and 1830, when scores of writers published their observations in newspapers, pamphlets, and books. Unfortunately, in that earlier day, the evidence reached a narrower public, and the flare of interest soon faded.

There are other similarities between the era of Napoleon and the Holy Alliance and that of Hitler and the Axis. Substitute "totalitarian" for "monarchical" and "democracy" for "republicanism," and the analogy grows. Even then there was easy talk of "the two Americas," protection of free institutions, Anglo-American cooperation, and isolationism. But there are differences as well as similarities between the two threats to the Western Hemisphere, and Professor

Whitaker insists that these, too, are essential for an understanding of the earlier crisis.

Interesting, however, as are these aspects of his book, they are but incidental to Professor Whitaker's main theme. His chief purposes are to describe the evolution of American policies toward Latin-American independence and "to recreate the climate of opinion" in which those policies were shaped. He believes that Jefferson, Monroe, Adams, and Clay molded attitudes which still condition the nation's Latin-American policies. Therefore, he pries behind the diplomatic façade to peer at essential economic, political, and cultural interests.

Professor Whitaker's book is the first genuine synthesis of this important subject. There have been many monographs on its different aspects, of which the author makes competent and appreciative use. But, in utilizing these studies, he does not slavishly accept their conclusions, nor does he hesitate to re-examine the sources. Moreover, he has turned up new evidence from the national archives of Spain, Argentina, Brazil, and Uruguay, from public and private collections in the United States, and from periodical publications in both the United States and Latin America. He reveals his understanding of the policies of European, as well as American states and consideration of the multifarious influences at work.

There is a brief but effective bibliographical note, an index of authors, editors, and translators, and a general index. These features increase the usefulness of one of the best of the volumes to come from the long and distinguished series of "Albert Shaw Lectures on Diplomatic History" at The Walter Hines Page School of International Relations.

HAROLD F. PETERSON

State Teachers College
Buffalo, New York

Society and Medical Progress. By Bernhard J. Stern. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1941. xvii. Pp. 264. \$3.00.

I can best begin this review by allowing Professor Stern of Columbia University to characterize his book in his own words:

The author's point of departure has been that medicine, both as a science and as a profession, is inextricably bound up with the social process and with scientific developments in other fields. An attempt has therefore been made to avoid the isolationism and biographic approach of all but a few medical historians. The traditional approach to the study of medicine as a unique discipline has, as a rule, violated reality, by ignoring the essential and all-important relations of medicine with socioeconomic conditions, with prevailing social attitudes, and with other

scientific disciplines. By departmentalizing the study of medicine, historians have generally shattered the texture of social and scientific processes in which medicine is webbed. The result has been that social and economic factors in medical development have been woefully neglected. This book, therefore, does not attempt a chronological presentation of medical progress as a segment of experience abstracted from its surroundings. Rather, it deals with medicine functionally in its social and scientific setting.

The author has brilliantly executed his purpose. In ten chapters, Dr. Stern outlines compactly but adequately *The Long Road to Medical Science*, *The Scientific Foundations of Medicine*, *The Role of the Medical School and the Development of the Hospital*. Then he continues with sections on *Urbanization and Its Effects*, *Income and Health*, *The Conquest of Famine*, *Medical Advances and Social Progress*, *Resistances to Medical Change* and finally a summarizing chapter on *Medical Progress and Social Change*.

It is difficult to single out any one section for particular praise since the whole effect is cumulative, not statically but dynamically. Professor Stern thus shows himself to be not only a capable sociologist but an able historian.

Medicine today is in a state of crisis standing at a point in its history from which it may go in any one of several directions. No one can predict the path which it will take but no one can hazard a guess who does not have some understanding of how medicine reached its present position. For such an understanding Dr. Stern's book is indispensable reading.

MORRIS C. LEIKIND

Library of Congress
Washington, D.C.

James Burd, Frontier Defender. By Lily Lee Nixon, 1726-1793. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1941. Pp. vii, 198. \$2.00.

This new volume in the *Pennsylvania Lives* series is largely an account of the Pennsylvania frontier during the years of the French and Indian War, when James Burd, who had emigrated from Scotland to Philadelphia in 1741, filled important position as roadbuilder and colonel of the provincial troops of Pennsylvania. His subsequent career was much less eventful, although he was an important figure in the politics and militia affairs of Lancaster County, where he developed a plantation on the Susquehanna River below Harrisburg. The author has made competent use of manuscript sources, including the various collections of Burd papers in the United States and abroad, and secondary materials, which are described

in a bibliographical note. The book is attractively printed and bound in a style uniform with the series, and it is accompanied by an index. Owing to Burd's unusually lengthy and active career as a frontiersman, this volume is a worth while contribution to the history of western Pennsylvania, and one which is not hard to read.

H.P.B.

Indoctrination for American Democracy. By Benjamin Floyd Pittenger. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941. Pp. xi, 110. \$1.25.

Is it undemocratic to indoctrinate for democracy? In his book, Dr. Pittenger answers this challenging question in the negative. He maintains that a proper business of education, both public and private, in this country is to imbue young Americans with intelligent devotion to their country's basic principles and ideals.

"Indoctrination for American democracy is represented as not only a proper, but also a major and necessary business of American education," Dr. Pittenger writes. "It is a plain duty of schools and teachers in this country to give vigorous support to the ideological pattern that sustains them."

The author uses the word "indoctrination" to include the development of understandings, beliefs, and loyalties with respect to basic and abiding principles of American democracy. It is this meaning that Pittenger stresses rather than the narrower and less acceptable meaning that John Dewey gives—"the systematic use of every possible means to impress upon the minds of pupils a particular set of political and economic views to the exclusion of every other." The word "indoctrination," compared with the word "education," is more than "just as good" as indoctrination is considered a phase of education.

Pittenger states that "indoctrination for democracy" implies that there are democratic doctrines which shall be taught. "It assumes for democracy a definite and teachable ideology. Unless such an ideology exists, it is futile to propose indoctrination in it. If it exists, it should be inculcated."

What is democracy? Just what understandings, beliefs, and loyalties does indoctrination for democracy entail?

The author answers these questions by formulating a set of principles which he has gathered from the elements of agreement among the postulates set forth by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and other competent and responsible groups of democratic Americans.

Pittenger deplores the fact that our schools and teachers take democracy for granted. American schools and teachers do not effectively inculcate democratic principles and loyalties. The weakness of the schools is due in part to the weakness of

teachers, and teachers are weak because they are the product of a former generation of similarly weak schools. He also believes that unmitigated faultfinding with our democracy by some teachers is the equivalent of anti-democratic propaganda. If we are to remedy these weaknesses, teachers and educational leaders should be honest in their criticism so as not to pave the way for overt indoctrination in totalitarian ideas.

But what of academic freedom? Pittenger handles this problem very nicely in the last chapter of his book. He states that the principal weakness of most professional statements regarding academic freedom is a tendency to under-emphasize the teacher's peculiar responsibilities. He goes on to say that teachers, by virtue of their office in society and of their unique relationship to growing minds, must constantly adjust themselves and their teachings with reference to three different factors—the social welfare, the learner's welfare, and their concept of truth. Too frequently teachers concentrate attention upon the third of these factors to the exclusion of the others. Teachers should be willing to make some small sacrifice of their professional liberty in order to develop in this country a citizenry that continuously understands, wholeheartedly accepts, and devotedly supports the underlying principles of American democracy.

FRANCIS J. CARBON

Philadelphia, Pa.

Social and Cultural Dynamics, Volume Four. Basic Problems, Principles, and Methods. By Pitirim A. Sorokin. New York: American Book Company, 1941. Pp. xv, 804. \$6.00.

Because Sorokin has posed eternally important questions, his fourth volume will find readers, even among those who did not relish the first three. This volume offers a systematic theory of sociocultural change, beginning with an analysis of the sociocultural system and its properties. Part Two deals with the basic problems of how culture changes. Part Three attempts to show for what reasons and causes culture changes in the way it does and why are the uniformities of the change such as they are.

Again, unfortunately, the diffuse and repetitious style forces one to feel the author is often beating the obvious. And there is always room for the conclusion that while sociologists may create a very learned vocabulary and system to mark the dying "Sensate" culture of our day, the sense of this transitional period or other periods has not been completely missed by others.

Nevertheless, this final tome—but the volumes should be read in sequence—will prove valuable to readers who are specialists in various fields.

R.H.H.

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GROWING IN CITIZENSHIP

By J. S. Young, University of Minnesota, and Edwin M. Barton. 1941 edition, 880 pages, illustrated, \$1.76

"This is an extremely well-rounded book and one which teachers of civics should welcome for its realistic approach to the truly essential problems with which all young people in their classes should become familiar."

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McGRAW-HILL BOOK CO., INC.

330 West 42nd St.
New York, N.Y.

The Nature of Modern Warfare. By Cyril Falls. New York: Oxford University Press, 1941. Pp. xvi, 101. \$1.25.

Especially for those whose military knowledge is such that they would relax behind "General Mud," mountains and rivers, these pithy essays on strategy and tactics are recommended. The lessons brought forward are many, including the need for coordinated planning, mentally and physically, in total war.

Although "the logic of total war has been carried to the point of absurdity because it has become too perfect" (p. 19), this does not give immediate hope. Of mechanized attack, Falls says, "Its enormous cost and difficulty of production will always make the armoured formation a special weapon and limit its employment. It cannot take the place of an army, though it may lead the army to victory."

The static defense is doomed under present conditions; for success there must be present the offensive elements of the defense, i.e., counterattack. The military correspondent of the *London Times* concludes, "Military history affords more examples of failures through overcaution than of failure through excessive boldness."

R.H.H.

Norwegian Migration to America: The American Transition. By Theodore C. Blegen. Northfield,

Minnesota: The Norwegian-American Historical Association, 1940. Pp. xii, 655. Illustrated. \$3.50.

That the history of the component parts of this nation is being rapidly lifted to the significant position it deserves is due to the urbane efforts and earth-based cosmopolitanism of workers like Dr. Blegen.

In an earlier volume he examined the European backgrounds of the Norwegian immigration in its frame of international history. To have made a convincing and artistic presentation on the theme of the American transition of the immigrant, viewed as an interplay of the European heritage and the American environment, is an even greater achievement.

Teachers will find that many portions of the book—on language, religion, the press, folkways, and the like—can be incorporated readily into a stimulating mental diet for students.

R.H.H.

The Battle for Municipal Reform: Mobilization and Attack, 1785 to 1900. By Clifford W. Patton. Introduction by Arthur M. Schlesinger. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1940. Pp. 91. \$2.00.

Professor Patton has produced a valuable study on the history of city government during the last twenty-five years of the nineteenth century. The activities

of the city boss, the corrupt political machine, and the other filchers of the public treasury, are clearly and interestingly presented. The contributing factors to such scandalous conditions were the low state of public morality, the weak, inappropriate and inflexible city charters, the problem of immigration, and the lack of community interest in issues pertaining to local affairs, and the failure of the state legislatures to legislate wisely for the municipalities.

The ever-present reformer was aroused slowly from his lethargy. At first he could do little more than protest and propagandize against the machine and the sordid "inner ring." His efforts gained momentum and force, though slowly. Local groups were loosely organized to campaign for reform and clean city government. Their labors helped to pave the way for the founding of the National Municipal League in 1894—indicative of the growing interest in civic improvement. The decade of the 1890's is characterized as the "great era of reform." Perhaps the characterization is an over-statement of the results. It was certainly the decade in which the soil was prepared for the great advances in municipal government during the twentieth century.

G.D.H.

Early Gild Records of Toulouse. Edited with an Introduction by Sister Mary Ambrose Mulholland, B.V.M.;

Heresy and Inquisition in Narbonne. By Richard W. Emery;

Christian Attitude towards the Emperor in the Fourth Century. By Kenneth M. Setton. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. 244, 184, 239. \$3.00, \$2.50, \$2.75.

These three dissertations, two of which reflect the interest of Professor Austin P. Evans on Southern France and the third of which is the product of Professor Lynn Thorndike's seminar in intellectual history, are all creditable contributions to mediaeval scholarship, carefully prepared and attractively published. Whether it be the subject matter, the superior literary style of the author, or the interest of the reviewer, the work of Dr. Emery seemed by far the outstanding volume of the three.

Sister Mary Mulholland's book is a carefully edited set of statutes, dating 1270-1322, of Toulousian craft guilds, including twenty-eight statutes of twenty-one guilds such as the butchers, oil merchants, weavers, fullers, dyers, cutlers, candle and dice makers, etc. The texts are well edited with manuscript variants in the notes, and with valuable introductions, glossary of terms, and indices. In general it may be said that the Toulouse gild statutes afford a detailed knowledge of the industrial processes but very little information as to the organization of the guilds, which were

to an unusual extent under the control of the municipal *capitouls*. This volume provides very useful material for the student of mediaeval economic history.

Dr. Emery's study is much more than its title would indicate, for in addition to developing his main theme of the inquisition in Narbonne, he builds up the background with a series of excellent chapters on the municipal organization of the city, the consuls, courts, struggle of archbishop and viscount, the monastic history of the town, and the establishment of the convents of the friars. Dr. Emery comes to the general conclusions that the inquisition was not as active in Narbonne as in the neighboring country, not because there was less heresy there but because the viscount secured comparative immunity by submitting to and assisting the crusaders, and after the decline of the viscount's power the archbishop was not too eager to lose his seigneurial rights over his vassals by citing them before an inquisitorial tribunal which would pronounce a sentence of forfeiture to the royal fisc of lands over which the archbishop was suzerain. The entire study shows the delicate balance between political, economic, and religious motives and factors, and is to be highly recommended both as a contribution to the history of the Albigensian crusade and as a lively and interesting picture of the organization and history of a southern French town.

Dr. Setton's book is an extremely scholarly, extremely dull analysis of the attitude of the Church fathers towards the emperor, based primarily on forms of address employed towards the emperors and remarks made to and about them. The general conclusion is that the Church fathers at first accepted the control of the state as exercised by Constantine, employing even the old pagan titles which indicated divinity, but that the Arian controversy caused them to distinguish sharply between *imperium* and *sacerdotium* and to differentiate the Christian emperor from the heretical tyrant. In their opposition to secular control the Eastern fathers were no less outspoken than the Western, Chrysostom taking as firm a stand as did Ambrose. In the opinion of the reviewer this work would have been increased in interest and not lessened in value if the author had been less detailed and had summarized his conclusions in a short article instead of dragging them out through an entire volume.

JOHN L. LAMONTE

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pa.

Technology and Society. By S. McKee Rosen and Laura Rosen. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941. Pp. 474. Illustrated. \$3.00.

The relation of technology and society is the theme of this book, written with the obvious purpose of

giving man a view of the future, with its potentialities and problems.

Economic books are numerous, but rarely does one find a text that tries to make its information real, alive, and interesting. The book is divided into four parts, The Technologic Base, and The Economic, Social, and Political Effects. In organization, in style, material, and effective expression the work will appeal to both students and the average laymen. The use of charts, photographs, and illustrations makes the book more interesting.

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

De Witt Clinton Junior High School
Mt. Vernon, N.Y.

The Cambridge History of the British Empire. J. Holland Rose, A. P. Newton, and E. A. Benians, Editors. Volume II, *The Growth of the New Empire, 1783-1870*. Cambridge: the University Press, 1940. Pp. xii, 1068. \$10.50.

The *Cambridge History of the British Empire* was planned in eight volumes. The first three were to deal with the Empire in general, volumes IV and V would concern India, and were indeed to be identical with volumes V and VI of the *Cambridge History of India*, while the last three would treat of the Dominions. Volume I, on the Old Empire, and those allocated to India and the Dominions, have been in print for some years, volume VII, on Australia and New Zealand appearing in two parts. That volumes II and III have been so long delayed points to the difficulties attending their preparation, proceeding in part from the lack of exploratory monographs on certain phases of the subject. The present volume takes the story from 1783 to 1870. Like its companions in the series it is a cooperative work, chapters being contributed by twenty scholars from Britain, the Dominions, and the United States. The period with which it deals is not the less fascinating because it presents a great paradox—a phenomenal development of empire in an era of general apathy toward things imperial. The paradox is of course largely dispelled by close investigation. The apathy was relative, and in any case the "Second Empire" was no more the child of preconceived theory and logical policy than the first had been. It came into existence as a result of the multifarious activities of a people who, already rich in maritime and colonial tradition, had now become the foremost industrial nation of the earth. Yet lines of policy there certainly were, else all had been anarchy, and from these policies the British Commonwealth of Nations has stemmed. Nor was this period by any means without its apostles of empire. Men as different as Sir Stamford Raffles, the builder of British Malaya, and Edward Gibbon Wakefield, the advocate of "scientific" colonization, believed in the future of Britain's overseas commitments as ardently as they

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UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA PRESS: PHILA.

labored to extend them. Yet this is the story of a formative period, preparatory to the era of ebullient imperialism which was to follow.

The scholarship of the present volume is of a high order, and the exposition generally, though not uniformly, good. The excellent bibliography, which takes up 120 pages, will be a boon to the advanced student, who will doubtless find his labors lightened by, *inter alia*, the select lists of Parliamentary Papers and of Parliamentary Debates. It is to be hoped that the appearance of volume III will soon complete this very worth-while undertaking.

LEONIDAS DODSON

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pa.

TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

Introduction to Social Science, Volume I. By G. C. Atteberry, J. L. Auble, E. F. Hunt, and Associates. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941. Pp. xiv, 668. \$3.00.

This first volume consists of twenty-five chapters organized in three parts under these headings: Basic Factors in Social Problems, Social Relations and Social Problems, and The Competitive System and Social Problems. The second volume, scheduled to be brought out in time for use during the second semes-

ter of the present school year, is to continue with *The Competitive System and Social Problems* through seven chapters, and is then to devote seventeen chapters to *Government and Social Problems*.

The text represents the outcome of the experience of a group of instructors in seven years of teaching the social science survey course required of all freshmen in the three Chicago City Junior Colleges as part of their general education.

In the introduction to the work the authors tell us that: The survey introduces the student not merely to a single segment of an area of study, but to all the segments. And secondly: The survey should give the student an appreciation of the interrelationships of the parts of a broad field of study and some understanding of the whole as a unit.

The "area of study," the "broad field," is apparently the domain of sociology, with a considerable emphasis on the economic aspect. In fact, judging by the first volume, the work is an excellent elementary treatise on sociology.

The problem approach is employed.

The text was written with these objectives in mind: To introduce the student to problems of contemporary society; to find what groups are most affected by these problems; to show by relevant historical data how these problems came to be and what has already been done about them; to demonstrate in what way economic, social, and political science contribute to an understanding and possible solution of these problems.

Particularly good chapters in Volume I are: Social Control, Public Opinion and Propaganda, and Race and Culture.

J. F. SANTEE

Oregon College of Education
Monmouth, Oregon

Civics in American Life. By James B. Edmonson and A. Dondineau. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941. Pp. xiii, 702. Illustrated. \$1.72.

Civics is no longer an anemic subject in which the teacher used meaningless words divorced from reality. There is a new spirit and vitality to the teaching of civics today and much of the credit must be given to the writers of textbooks who have pioneered in the field.

The viewpoint of the authors of this particular text is that Civics was once a study concerned with merely the memorizing of a few facts about government. The new civics is primarily concerned with the meaning of American democracy, the major problems and services of our government, and the obli-

tions of the citizens. This new viewpoint requires a kind of instruction in which learning by doing has a part along with the mastery of essential facts as a basis for an enlightened citizenship.

The book is composed of seven units and each unit is introduced by a preview. The following division of units is used: The community and our civic life; How our local and state governments are organized and how they serve us; How our federal government is organized and how it functions; American democracy—its meaning and its obligation for the citizen; Social problems—how our democracy helps us to live happily together; Economic problems—how our democracy helps us to satisfy our daily needs; and Preparing to meet future vocational obligations.

Mingled with the discussion are problems which take the student out into his community so that his learning of civics comes directly through personal contact with community affairs, the community being his laboratory. The text itself is written in a simple, informal style and a good choice is shown in regard to the illustrations in this book. They should be used by the teacher as part of the teaching program for there are 236 illustrations of which 205 are either full-page or half-page illustrations and 31 are graphs or diagrams.

Civics Through Problems which the same authors wrote in 1935 was a good book while this one is an excellent book.

HAROLD GLUCK

William Howard Taft High School
Bronx, New York

Introduction to Responsible Citizenship. By William E. Mosher and Associates. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1941. Pp. viii, 887. \$3.25.

Somewhere between the college survey course in contemporary society and the course in government or civics there has been a manifest need for a course in functional citizenship which would embrace the relationship of the individual to society in all its aspects—social, economic, and political. Here is a brilliant and scholarly text which was written for just such a course. This volume is an outgrowth of several years of teaching a course in Responsible Citizenship at the Maxwell School of Citizenship and Public Affairs, Syracuse University, and was written by members of the staff under the editorship of William E. Mosher, dean of the school.

The authors begin with a definition of "responsible citizenship" which they say involves "a sensitiveness to the social rights and needs of others" and "a capacity for independent thinking and critical evaluation," both of which are essential for an individual's intelligent participation in the affairs of society. With this definition as a frame of reference, the

authors then proceed to analyze the nature of man, psychological and physical, and the reaction of man to his social environment. In treating this latter phase, the authors assert that the "responsible citizen" must learn to subject the mores and institutions of society to critical examination as to their social values; but before he can do this, the "responsible citizen" must become familiar with the institutions and folkways of society by a study of the basic social sciences, such as sociology, politics, economics, and social philosophy. The major part of this book, therefore, is concerned with these social sciences, some of the material presented in the traditionally factual manner and some of it also in relation to the individual, his place in society, and his responsibility to democracy. The authors conclude their work with a stimulating discussion of the challenge confronting the citizens of a democracy and the ways of making the democratic system more effective and useful.

This volume is well organized and contains valuable chapter bibliographies and questions to stimulate critical thinking. Whether used as a text or not, this book is a "must" for every teacher of the social sciences.

LEO LITZKY

Central High School
Newark, New Jersey

History of Latin America. By Hutton Webster. Revised and augmented by Roland Dennis Hussey. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1941. Pp. x, 326. \$1.64.

With the large array of books, some of questionable worth, appearing on Latin America, it is gratifying to find this third edition, revised and brought up to date, of an already tried and valuable text in this field.

As in the earlier editions, the text begins with an analysis of the geographic setting of the southern continent and a brief sketch of the civilization and culture of its earliest inhabitants. The volume then continues in traditional chronological fashion to relate the history of Latin America from its European backgrounds to contemporary Pan Americanism. There are separate chapters on Nationalism and Democracy since the World War, Economic and Social Conditions, and the International Relations of Latin America.

It is this last chapter which invites criticism. Although it is excellent as far as it goes, one has the feeling that it treats too inadequately the recent tendencies toward cooperation between the Americas. For instance, the cultural cooperation among the Americas, manifested in the exchange of teachers, in the exchange of art, music, and radio programs, seems worthy of discussion. More also might be said re-

garding the trade relations of Latin America and the United States. Not only does the Hull reciprocal trade program merit more than passing notice but so does the effect of the current war on South American trade.

On the whole, however, the book is splendidly suited as a text for high school students. The language is simple, clear, and direct, and the pages are stocked with a host of pertinent and interesting facts.

LEO LITZKY

Central High School
Newark, New Jersey

Everyday Occupations. By M. A. Davey, E. M. Smith and T. R. Myers. Boston: D. C. Heath Company, 1941. Pp. xii, 372. Illustrated. \$1.68.

Vocational guidance is now an acceptable part of the curriculum of all the more progressive high schools of the country. Children show a tendency toward one or another vocation in life and need but the proper direction to make them certain of their calling. This book seeks to aid the boy or girl who has difficulty in reaching a decision as to what his life work is to be.

The authors have divided their work into ten major occupations and have then subdivided these into various classifications dealing with each occupation. At the conclusion of each section there is a list of advantages and disadvantages in that particular field, with a select list of positions open for those interested. The illustrations are of page length and are well adapted for each section.

An interesting point to note is the stress laid on positions in the various industries, in counter-distinction to the lack of emphasis on "white collar" jobs. This study is not all inclusive, but it is a start in the right direction and one that definitely fills a much needed gap.

JAMES J. FLYNN

Bishop Loughlin High School
Brooklyn, New York

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

Southern Regional Materials in Social Science. By H. C. Brearley. Nashville, Tennessee: The Division of Surveys and Field Studies, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1941. Pp. 54. Field Study No. 8.

A helpful guide for teachers.

The Great Law of Our Land. By Fred H. Duffy. Columbus, Ohio: American Education Press, 1941. Pp. 32. Illustrated. 20 cents.

A text-workbook on the Constitution for elementary grades.

Latin American Backgrounds: A Bibliography. By The National Education Association of the U.S. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1941. Pp. 48. 25 cents.

A timely help for teachers interested in inter-American solidarity.

Reading Guide for Social Studies Teachers. By Edgar B. Wesley. Bulletin No. 17. Washington, D.C.: The National Council for the Social Studies, 1941. Pp. 158. 50 cents.

Carefully annotated. Useful for teachers.

Effects of the Defense Program on Prices, Wages and Profits. By Meyer Jacobstein, and Harold G. Moulton. Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institute, 1941. Pp. v, 43. 25 cents.

A readable analysis of high quality.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

The World's Iron Age. By William Henry Chamberlain. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941. Pp. viii, 402. \$3.00.

A famous correspondent argues the thesis that since 1914 we have been experiencing a collapse of the predominantly liberal civilization of the nineteenth century. Discusses the tendency of all totalitarian regimes to develop into mere power machines with little concern for their original theoretical privileges. Lessons for America and the future.

Education for Death: The Making of the Nazi. By Gregor Ziemer. London: Oxford University Press, 1941. Pp. 208. \$2.00.

A carefully documented clue to the peculiar mentality of the average Nazi.

Social Norms and the Behavior of College Students. By J. Edward Todd. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. xi, 190. \$2.10.

Includes chapters on the pattern of American culture, the dynamic character of personal values, and a chapter on the implications for higher education.

Stars and Strikes: Unionization of Hollywood. By Murray Ross. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. xi, 233. \$2.75.

An interesting drama of labor and industry. Hollywood is never dull.

Great Soldiers of the Two World Wars. By H. A. De Weerd. New York: W. W. Morton and Company, 1941. Pp. 378. Illustrated. \$3.50.

Twelve interesting portraits which will also serve as an excellent introduction to military science. Highly recommended.

Wise Spending: An Introduction to Consumer Economics. By Stewart B. Hamblen and G. F. Zimmerman. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941. Pp. xi, 448. Illustrated. \$1.80.

A text for training the consumer, not a formal economic analysis.

People are Important. By Floyd L. Ruch, G. M. Mackenzie and M. McClean. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1941. Pp. xii, 283. Illustrated. \$1.32.

Uses applied psychology to help student make a successful adjustment to social living. Can be used for basic high school course in psychology or citizenship.

Workbook in American History. By Julian Aldrich and Hall Bartlett. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941. Pp. vi, 277. 68 cents.

A capable aid prepared with special reference to *The American Way of Life* by Faulkner, Kepner and Bartlett.

Functions of Business: A Text for Consumer and Producer. By Lloyd L. Jones, H. A. Tonne, and Ray G. Price. New York: The Gregg Publishing Company, 1941. Pp. xiv, 557. Illustrated. \$1.80.

A book of the personal-economics type for senior high schools. A correlated workbook is available.

The World's Destiny and the U.S. By World Citizens Association. Chicago: World Citizens Association, 1941. Pp. xx, 309.

The report of a conference of experts on the problems which will confront democratic countries during and after the war.

Everyday Things in American Life, 1776-1876. By William Chauncy Langdon. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1941. Pp. xv, 397. Illustrated. \$3.00.

Richly illustrated and likely to be as well received as volume I (1607-1776) for general reading and reference. Recommended for school libraries.

Education in a Democracy. Edited by Newton Edwards. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941. Pp. xi, 160. \$1.25.

A series of eight lectures which evolves a philosophy of education for a democracy and attempts to point the future direction education should take.

Decide for Yourself. Institute for Propaganda Analysis, Inc. New York: The Institute, 1941. \$1.00.

A packet of original materials on a national issue,

"Health and the Doctors," Series One, No. 8. Teachers should examine this series.

The Citizen in a Changing Community. By Jacob L. Bernstein and David J. Arrin. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1941. Pp. xii, 636. Illustrated. \$1.80.

A core of basic materials for ninth year social studies, viewed both as an orientation and a terminal course.

Creative Group Work on the Campus. By Louise Price. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. xvi, 437. \$3.25.

Suggestive socio-genetic study of certain aspects of student life in Stephens College and Stanford University. A study of the processes rather than a study of the end results only.

Ethics and Social Policy. By Wayne A. R. Leys. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1941. Pp. xiii, 522. School price \$3.00.

Attempts to make the principles of ethical criticism accessible and intelligible to people who must evaluate public policies and personal plans of conduct. For young people.

The Fall of the Napoleonic Kingdom of Italy (1814). By R. John Rath. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. 247. \$3.00.

A scholarly study of a puppet state created in 1805. Discloses the origins of many of the problems which later confronted the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom.

The Pageant of South American History. By Anne Merriman Peck. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1941. Pp. x, 405. Illustrated. \$3.00.

A dramatic and sympathetic presentation.

Germanizing Prussian Poland: The H-K-T Society and the Struggle for the Eastern Marches in the German Empire, 1894-1919. By Richard W. Tims. New York: Columbia University Press, 1914. Pp. 312. \$4.25.

Brings to a focus characteristic aspects of German life and German ways of thinking and acting from Bismarck to World War I. The German Eastern Marches Association came to be known as the H-K-T Society.

The Atlantic System: The Story of Anglo-American Control of the Seas. By Forrest Davis. New York: Reynal and Hitchcock. 1941. Pp. xvi, 363. \$3.00.

A critical and realistic survey of Anglo-American

relations in terms primarily of strategy, sea power and diplomacy.

The German Delegation at the Paris Peace Conference. By Alma Luckau. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. xv, 522. \$5.00.

Primarily a documentary history. Clarifies the conflicting currents of peace opinion in Germany and the weakness of the German peace delegation. An important case study.

The Social Life of Primitive Man. By Sylvester A. Sieber and F. H. Mueller. St. Louis, Mo.: B. Herder Book Company, 1941. Pp. xiii, 566. \$3.50.

By followers of the Vienna school of ethnology.

A History of Hungary. By Dominic G. Kosáry. Cleveland, Ohio: The Benjamin Franklin Bibliophile Society, 1941. Pp. ix, 482. Illustrated.

A useful story by a Hungarian professor. The Society, founded in 1935, is to promote the understanding of the cultural endeavors of the peoples of East-Central Europe.

That They May Have Life. By Stephen B. L. Penrose, Jr. Princeton, N.J.: University Press, 1941. Pp. xv, 347. Illustrated. \$3.75.

An important study of the American University of Beirut, 1866-1941. Published for the trustees.

Lands of New World Neighbors. By Hans C. Adamson. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1941. Pp. xiii, 593. \$2.75.

This book allies the printed page with radio broadcasts, each chapter closely following one of the 26 broadcasts in the *New Horizons* series of Columbia's School of the Air of the Americas.

International Rivalry in the Pacific Islands, 1800-1875. By Jean Ingram Brookes. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1941. Pp. ix, 454. \$5.00.

An excellent, comprehensive account of the partitioning of Oceania up to 1875, and of the policies of the powers which took part in the struggle.

The French Laic Laws (1879-1889); the First Anti-Clerical Campaign of the Third French Republic. By Evelyn M. Acomb. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. 282. \$3.50.

This work contains documented data for historians of nineteenth-century Europe, education, religion, and ideas.

Intellectual America: Ideas on the March. By Oscar Cargill. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941. Pp. xxi, 777. \$5.00.

A bold and dynamic survey that does not pretend to be a history, but a critical study of contemporary American culture with history as one tool to shape history. He proposes a new word—ideodynamics, the descriptive study of ideologies and of the results of the forces which they exert.

English Political Pluralism: The Problem of Freedom and Organization. By Henry M. Magid. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. 100. \$1.25.

Pluralism, the opposite of monism, is here analyzed and criticized on the bases of its exposition by Cole, Figgis, and Laski.

Master of the Mississippi. By Florence L. Dorsey. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1941. Pp. 301. Illustrated. \$3.75.

The story of Henry Shreve, who taught a river to fetch and carry for the nation. Shreveport being his namesake.

Brazil: Land of the Future. By Stefan Zweig. New York: The Viking Press, 1941. Pp. 282. \$3.00.

An interesting volume written by an author who believes one of the greatest hopes for future civilization rests on the existence of Brazil.

The Crisis of Our Age; the Social and Cultural Outlook. By Pitirim A. Sorokin. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1941. Pp. 338. \$3.50.

A penetrating and systematic analysis of the nature, causes, consequences of the contemporary crisis. Based on his *Social and Cultural Dynamics* but directed to a wider audience.

The Potsdam Führer: Frederick William I, Father of Prussian Militarism. By Robert Ergang. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. 290. \$3.00.

The first biography in English of this Prussian whose spirit and ideals are very much alive, partly because one of his fourteen children, Frederick the Great, didn't hesitate to use his cherished military machine.

Music in Western Civilization. By Paul Henry Lang. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1941. Pp. xvi, 1107. Illustrated. \$5.00.

An excellent history of music, highly recommended for the school or personal library. Music is placed as a part of intellectual and cultural history. Attractive format.

This War: A Survey of World Conflict. By Philip Dorf. New York: Oxford Book Company, 1941. Pp. iv, 124. Illustrated. 75 cents.

Background of the war, with an analysis of military and political factors.

They All Hold Swords. By Cedric Belfrage. New York: Modern Age Books, 1941. Pp. 343. \$2.50.

An absorbing autobiography—the making of an American out of an English gentleman. A different kind of “melting pot” literature.

Hero of Darien. By Maxine Shore and M. M. Oblinger. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1941. Pp. xii, 263. \$2.00.

The story of Balboa in fictional form.

The Man Who Would Not Wait. By Mary T. Carroll. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1941. Pp. viii, 223. \$2.00.

Biography of Aaron Burr as a romantic and tragic figure.

Heresy and Inquisition in Narbonne. By Richard W. Emery. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. 184. \$2.50.

Covers more topics than the title would indicate.

Christian Attitude Towards the Emperor in the Fourth Century. By Kenneth M. Setton. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. 239. \$2.75.

A scholarly dissertation.

Early Gild Records of Toulouse. Ed. by Sister Mary A. Mulholland. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. li, 193. \$3.00.

A carefully edited set of statutes.

Woman in the Sacred Scriptures of Hinduism. By Mildred W. Pinkham. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. xiv, 239. \$2.75.

Because religion has been an important factor in placing woman in Indian society, this book is valuable and interesting, partly because it includes scriptural authority for improvement.

A Generation of Materialism, 1871-1900. By Carlton J. H. Hayes. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941. Pp. xii, 390. Illustrated. \$3.75.

A brilliant, illuminating account of an epoch which is considered as a climax of enlightenment and a source of disillusionment. A reappraisal that must be read.

Workbook for Use with Democracy of Work. By Ernest B. Fincher and Russell E. Fraser. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Company, 1941. Pp. 123.

A useful aid to a well-known textbook.